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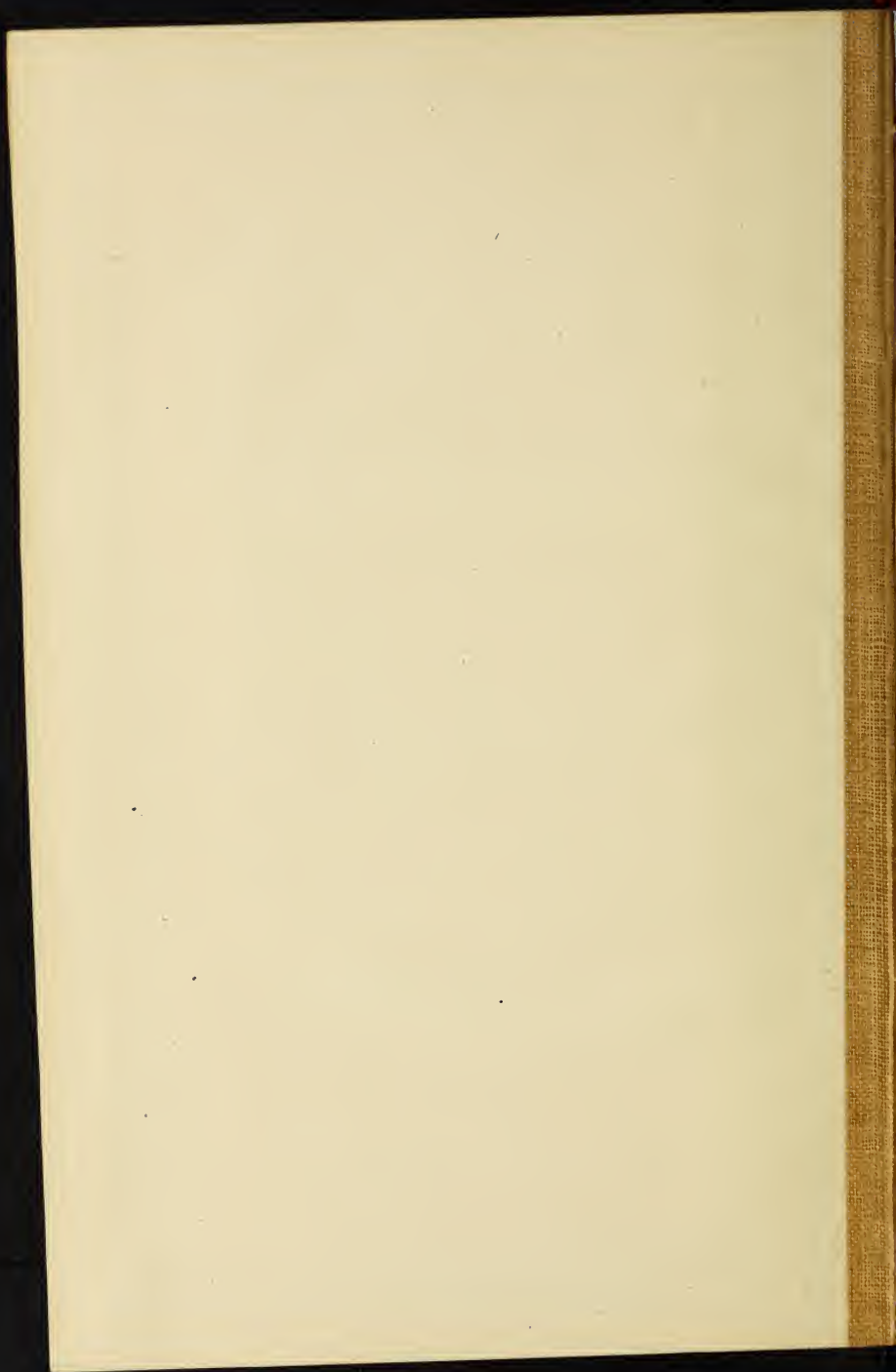
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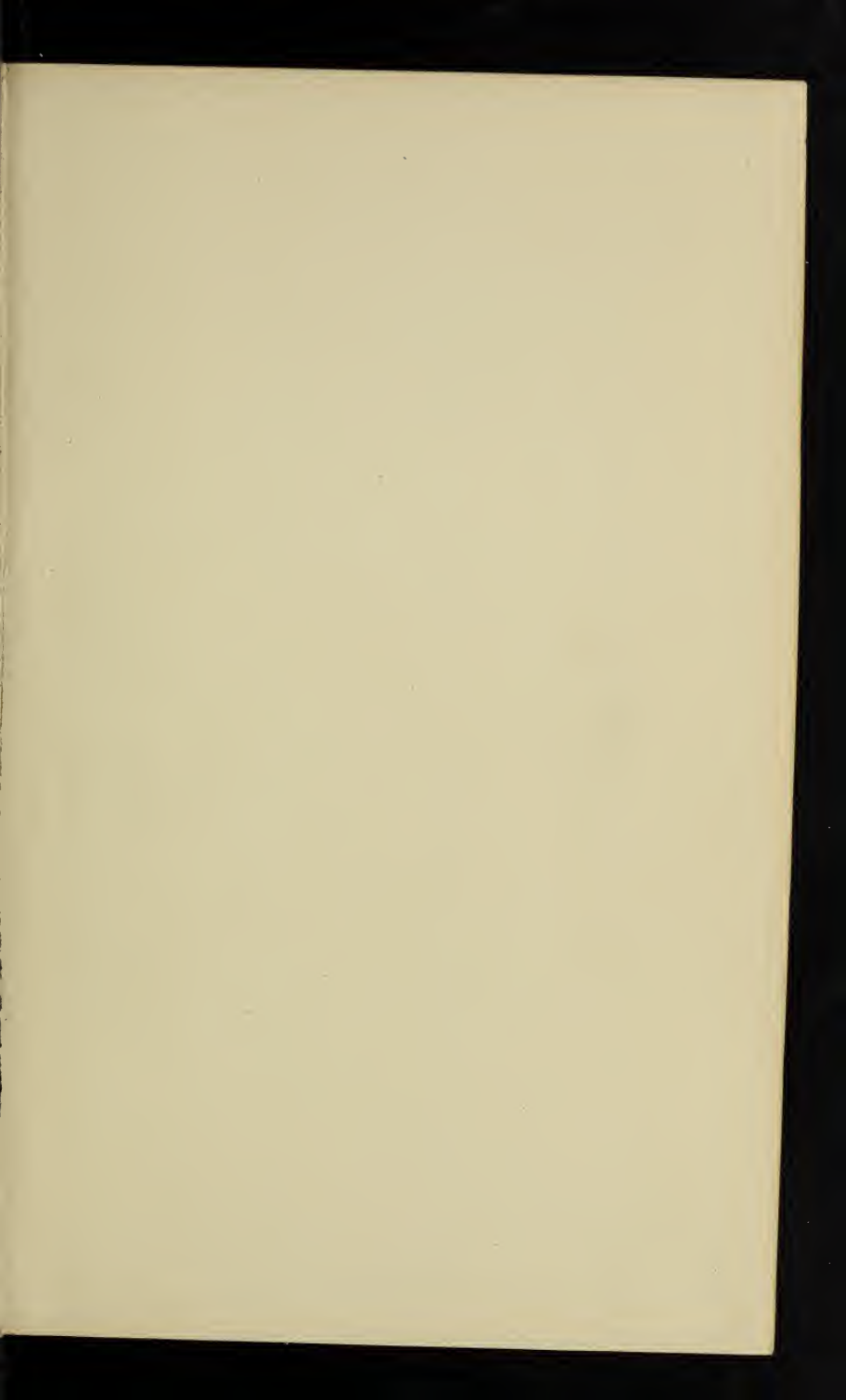
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CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR 1912.

| JANUARY. | | | | | APRIL. | | | | | JULY. | | | | | OCTOBER. | | | | |
|-----------|---|----|----|----|---------|---|----|----|----|------------|---|----|----|----|-----------|---|----|----|----|
| Su. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | Su. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | Su. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | Su. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| M. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | M. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | M. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | M. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 |
| Tu. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | Tu. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | Tu. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | Tu. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 |
| W. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | W. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | W. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | W. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 |
| Th. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | Th. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | Th. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | Th. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 |
| F. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | F. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | F. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | F. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 |
| S. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | S. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | S. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | S. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| FEBRUARY. | | | | | MAY. | | | | | AUGUST. | | | | | NOVEMBER. | | | | |
| Su. ... | — | 4 | 11 | 18 | Su. ... | — | 5 | 12 | 19 | Su. ... | — | 4 | 11 | 18 | Su. ... | — | 3 | 10 | 17 |
| M. ... | — | 5 | 12 | 19 | M. ... | — | 6 | 13 | 20 | M. ... | — | 5 | 12 | 19 | M. ... | — | 4 | 11 | 18 |
| Tu. ... | — | 6 | 13 | 20 | Tu. ... | — | 7 | 14 | 21 | Tu. ... | — | 6 | 13 | 20 | Tu. ... | — | 5 | 12 | 19 |
| W. ... | — | 7 | 14 | 21 | W. ... | — | 8 | 15 | 22 | W. ... | — | 7 | 14 | 21 | W. ... | — | 6 | 13 | 20 |
| Th. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | Th. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | Th. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | Th. ... | — | 7 | 14 | 21 |
| F. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | F. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | F. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | F. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 |
| S. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | S. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | S. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | S. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 |
| MARCH. | | | | | JUNE. | | | | | SEPTEMBER. | | | | | DECEMBER. | | | | |
| Su. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | Su. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | Su. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 | Su. ... | 1 | 8 | 15 | 22 |
| M. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | M. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | M. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 | M. ... | 2 | 9 | 16 | 23 |
| Tu. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | Tu. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | Tu. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 | Tu. ... | 3 | 10 | 17 | 24 |
| W. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | W. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | W. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 | W. ... | 4 | 11 | 18 | 25 |
| Th. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | Th. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | Th. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 | Th. ... | 5 | 12 | 19 | 26 |
| F. ... | 8 | 15 | 22 | 29 | F. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | F. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 | F. ... | 6 | 13 | 20 | 27 |
| S. ... | 9 | 16 | 23 | 30 | S. ... | 8 | 15 | 22 | 29 | S. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 | S. ... | 7 | 14 | 21 | 28 |

MEMORANDA FOR THE YEAR 1912.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|---------|------------------------|---------|-------------------|---------|
| Epiphany ... | Jan. 6 | Ascension Day... | May 16 | Bank Holiday ... | Aug. 5 |
| Quagesima ... | Feb. 4 | Empire Day ... | May 24 | Jewish New Year | Sep. 12 |
| Wednesday ... | Feb. 21 | Whit Sunday ... | May 26 | Michaelmas Day | Sep. 29 |
| Trin Equinox ... | Mar. 20 | Queen Mary (1867) ... | May 24 | Trafalgar Day | Oct. 21 |
| Ann'on Lady Day | Mar. 25 | Bank Holiday ... | May 27 | All Saints Day... | Nov. 1 |
| Trin Sunday ... | Mar. 31 | Trinity Sunday | June 2 | Advent... | Dec. 1 |
| Good Friday ... | Apr. 5 | King's Birthday (1865) | June 3 | Shortest Day ... | Dec. 22 |
| Trin Day ... | Apr. 7 | Longest Day ... | June 21 | Christmas Day | Dec. 25 |
| Bank Holiday ... | Apr. 8 | Prince of Wales (1894) | June 23 | Bank Holiday ... | Dec. 26 |
| St. John's Accession | May 7 | Midsummer Day | June 24 | | |

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EVENTS OF 1911.

(By THE EDITOR OF THE "DAILY NEWS.")

A year of unexampled sunshine and drought; of the coronation of a new King; of constitutional change at home; of the insurgence of labour—the nation brought to the brink of paralysis in a night; of vast peace proposals quickly overshadowed by a war cloud that hung month by month over the sky of Europe and culminated in a conflict sudden and unprovoked; of a great scheme of State Insurance for the working classes; of reciprocity proposals between Canada and the United States, leading to the overthrow of Sir Wilfrid Laurier after 15 years of unchallenged supremacy—this is in brief the story of 1911. A year of alarums and excursions, of a world disturbed and restless, moving tumultuously towards change.

The Defeat of the Lords.

The previous year had closed amid the excitement of a General Election—the prelude to the last act in the struggle between the House of Commons and the House of Lords. As the result of that election, the Liberal Government faced the situation with an unimpaired majority of 126, returned for the specific purpose of passing the Parliament Bill and abolishing the veto of the House of Lords. The Opposition challenged the verdict of the country, as they had challenged the previous one. They declared that the majority was not a majority for the Parliament Bill, but for the Parliament Bill plus Home Rule, and that the latter issue had not been submitted to the country. Whatever the merits of this contention, it had little fighting value in the House, where the Parliament Bill went through its stages without change, the third reading being carried on May 15th by a majority of 121.

The attention of the country now turned to the House of Lords. Would it surrender or fight? It had made two more attempts to counter the Government policy by schemes of its own—(1) Lord Balfour of Burleigh's Referendum Bill, which was promptly dispatched by the backwoodsmen; and (2) Lord Lansdowne's Reconstitution Bill, which aimed at preserving the powers of the House of Lords unimpaired, while reconstructing its constitution in such a way as to preserve a permanent Tory majority. The hereditary element was to be limited, and new members were to be brought in on a non-elective principle. The production of these schemes only served to show that any drastic reform from within was impossible, and the House was left face to face with the Government's ultimatum.

The reply of the Lords to that ultimatum was unequivocal. They destroyed the essential principles of the Bill, reasserted in an aggravated form the authority of the House of Lords over finance, excluded from the operation of the Bill large fields of legislation, and introduced the principle of the referendum.

Up to this point nothing had been said authoritatively as to the intentions of the King. The assumption, of course, was that he would act constitutionally on the advice of his Ministers, and create the necessary peers; but the extreme section of the Opposition asserted that "guarantees" did not exist, and urged the Lords to fight to the last ditch. Already a sharp division had appeared in the ranks of the Tory peers. Lord Lansdowne had made it clear that

would not force the creation of peers; but the fighting wing of the party, led by Lord Halsbury and Lord Selborne, and blessed in his retirement by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, declared their intention to resist the Bill to the end, even though the Royal prerogative were brought into play.

This was the situation on July 20th. On that day the Bill, mutilated beyond recognition, passed its third reading in the House of Lords. On the same day the Prime Minister sent the following historic letter to Mr. Balfour:—

10, Downing Street, July 20th, 1911.

Dear Mr. Balfour,—

I think it is courteous and right before any public decisions are announced to let you know how we regard the political situation. When the Parliament Bill in the form which it has now assumed returns to the House of Commons we shall be compelled to ask the House to disagree with the Lords' Amendments. In the circumstances, should the necessity arise, the Government will advise the King to exercise his prerogative to secure the passing into law of the Bill in substantially the same form in which it left the House of Commons, and his Majesty has been pleased to signify that he will consider it his duty to accept and act on that advice.—Yours sincerely,

(Signed) H. H. ASQUITH.

The letter fell with shattering effect upon the Tory Party, which had nursed the idle hope that the King would throw over his Ministers. The Press resounded with the most extravagant attacks on the "Traitors," and when, on July 24th, Mr. Asquith rose in the House of Commons to announce the Government's procedure a scene took place without parallel in the history of the Chamber. For nearly an hour the Prime Minister struggled to deliver his speech, amid a ceaseless and insulting clamour, led by Lord Hugh Cecil. Finally, Mr. Asquith gave up the hopeless contest, and it was not until August 1st, when Mr. Balfour moved a vote of censure on the Government, that he reviewed the history of the Bill, and stated the Government's intentions.

In the meantime the division of opinion among the Opposition had rapidly developed into a condition of civil war. The Tory Party was rent into two bitterly hostile factions, and the leadership of Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne was openly denounced in the Tory Press and on the Tory platforms. The "Die-Hards" and the "Hands-offers"—or to use the more popular nicknames, the "Hedgers" and "Ditchers"—began enrolling their forces in preparation for the decisive vote in the House of Lords. Lord Lansdowne publicly appealed for support, and announced daily the list of those who, by abstaining from voting, would assist the Government to pass the Bill. Lord Morley, the Liberal leader in the House of Lords, also published a list of Liberal peers who had agreed to support the Bill. Lord Halsbury, however, kept the number of his supporters secret, and as a considerable majority of the peers were unaccounted for in the Lansdowne and Morley lists, the result of the conflict could not be foreseen. The House of Lords met on August 9th to receive the Bill back from the Commons. For two days the debate raged with bitter acrimony on the Tory side. The issue was in doubt up to the end, which was reached on Thursday, the 10th, when the division was taken. The figures were:—

| | |
|--------------------------|------------|
| For the Bill..... | 131 |
| Against | 114 |

Thus ended the most severe constitutional struggle since the passing of the great Reform Bill. It had occupied the mind of the country for nearly two years—ever since the rejection of the Budget of 1909 by the Lords—and Parliament and public, released from the long strain, turned cheerfully to the thought of holidays.

The Revolt of Labour.

The satisfaction was short-lived. On the eve of the adjournment to the autumn, a conflagration, wholly without precedent, blazed up in an unexpected quarter. Throughout the summer there had been unusual signs of unrest in the labour world. It was an unrest that took new forms, and worked independently of ordinary trade-union policy. It broke out here and there with the suddenness and spontaneity of forest fires. Its peculiarity was that it manifested itself among the lowest-paid and least-organised classes of workers—carters, transport workers, dockers, and so on. The movement, which brought the "sympathetic" strike for the first time into the industrial conflicts of this country, first appeared in Manchester. Then it broke out in an aggravated form at Liverpool, where the carrying trade was paralysed, and the city brought within measurable distance of starvation. London followed in the wake of the northern cities, the dockers striking for higher wages. No sooner had they been placated than they came out again in sympathy with the lightermen, stevedores, and carmen. All these risings had in turn been settled when, on the eve of the adjournment of Parliament, the prevalent discontent flamed up into the most startling episode of modern industrial warfare. The railway men, who had long chafed under the operation of the agreement of 1907, suddenly declared a general strike, and in the heart of the holiday season the nation was brought face to face with an unexampled conflict, which threatened every industry and the food supply of every home.

The movement of events was swift and dramatic. The Government postponed the adjournment over the crisis. On Wednesday, August 16th, the Board of Trade secured a 24-hours' respite, and throughout Thursday interview followed interview. Mr. Asquith met the representatives of the men, and offered a Royal Commission; but the terms of his reply were understood to convey a threat of the use of military, and the men emerged from the interview determined on war. They called their followers out forthwith, and throughout Thursday night, Friday, and Saturday the railway system of the country ceased working. The machinery of transit and travel was largely brought to a standstill. Stations and lines were in the charge of the military. Passenger and goods traffic were alike affected, and though by great effort a certain number of trains were got through, every hour increased the menace of a food famine. It was impossible that a situation that threatened the very life of the nation could continue. Throughout Friday the Government was active in its efforts to secure a truce, and on Saturday Mr. Lloyd George brought about a settlement, the company directors being informed by the Government that they must agree to the men's grievances being submitted to a Royal Commission forthwith. On this understanding the men resumed work on the Saturday night. The strike had lasted only two days, but no strike on record had hit the nation so swift and far-reaching a blow.

Weather, the Price of Food, and Reciprocity.

The grievances of the railway men centred in the demand for recognition of the Unions by the companies, but at the root they were

the same as those which were the cause of the general unrest in the labour world. On the one hand, wages had remained practically stationary; on the other, food prices had been steadily advancing. The same phenomena on the Continent had produced food riots throughout France, in Austria, and elsewhere. In several countries the situation was so grave that reduction in the duties on meat had to be hurriedly conceded. Across the Atlantic the increased cost of living—an increase far more marked even than in Europe—had given a new impetus to the long-felt need of closer commercial relations between Canada and the United States, and the scheme of Reciprocity put forward by Sir Wilfrid Laurier and President Taft, which provided something approximating to Free Trade between the two countries, seemed assured of adoption. It was, however, powerfully resisted by the trusts and financial interests in both countries, and when in September Sir Wilfrid Laurier appealed to the electorate of Canada, a great outcry against the United States, based on the carefully-propagated fear of annexation, resulted in a reactionary stampede and the overthrow of Sir Wilfrid after 15 years of office.

Not a little of the labour unrest was attributable to the unexampled summer. Never within living memory had the country witnessed such an uninterrupted period of drought, sunshine, and high temperatures. From April onward to October, with a brief break in June, the sun reigned in unclouded splendour. During the dog days, 80 in the shade became the normal day temperature, and the thermometer frequently recorded readings of 90 and upwards, while on August 9th 100 degrees in the shade was registered at Greenwich Observatory. This abnormal experience—pleasant enough for those who could adapt themselves to its requirements—had a feverish influence upon life in the mean streets and the factories, while the effect of the prolonged drought upon the crops gave a new turn to the screw of the food prices which were pressing so heavily upon the poor.

The War Cloud.

While this fermentation of the under-world was filling the minds of men with new hopes or fears the political sky was overhung by the most formidable war cloud of recent years. The spring had brought with it a great wave of peace. President Taft's proposal for permanent arbitration between the United States and this country was warmly responded to by Sir Edward Grey in a speech which moved the House of Commons and the country profoundly. He denounced arbitrament by the sword, and called upon the nations labouring under the burden of armaments to escape from the prison whose door was locked on the inside." There followed a great demonstration at the Guildhall, at which Mr. Asquith, Mr. Balfour, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and others heralded the dawn of a world at peace. Within a few months all Europe was thinking of war, reckoning up armies and navies, and watching with breathless interest the movements of the curtain behind which the most secret of all dramas, the drama of diplomacy, was being played. Morocco was once more the powder-cask of Europe. Under the pretence of protecting French subjects in Fez, which was undergoing "a sort of a siege," France sent a military expedition into the country. That the occupation of the country was the real intention of France was obvious. This intention constituted a complete breach of the Algeiras Convention, to which the European powers and the United States were signatories. Germany's reply took the form of the dispatch of a warship to Agadir, on the Atlantic seaboard of Morocco. Instantly the war clouds gathered, and the British

public, which had been indifferent to, almost unconscious of, the meaning of the expedition to Fez, seized on the Agadir incident as a new illustration of the mischievous designs of Germany. Negotiations were opened between France and Germany, but around these negotiations there gathered a sinister atmosphere which involved all Europe. Great Britain was concerned, not merely on account of her own interests, but as the supporter of France, and a triangular duel, at once puzzling and menacing, ensued, the conflict between France and Germany becoming almost secondary to the obscure conflict between Great Britain and Germany, which was lit up now by a speech by Mr. Lloyd George at the Mansion House, now by a grave statement by the Prime Minister in the House of Commons. War was in the air, but no man could say why or wherefore, for the shadows that moved across the diplomatic blind only served to deepen the mystery that enveloped the action of the play. Even when France and Germany seemed to have arrived at a settlement on the basis of a free hand for France in Morocco and the cession of territory to Germany in the Congo basin, the bitterness between Germany and ourselves continued.

From this cloud there suddenly leapt from an unexpected quarter the lightnings of actual war. Italy, who had long cast covetous eyes on Tripoli, seized the opportunity of declaring war against Turkey on entirely factitious grounds, and dispatched a fleet to bombard the Tripolitan coast towns. The adventure was flagrant and conscienceless, and might easily have involved all Europe in a conflagration; but Italy had secured herself against interference, and Turkey was left to fight or surrender as she saw fit. The early success of Italy in the bombardment and occupation of Tripoli was followed by a desultory warfare which threatened Italy with long and costly operations.

The Insurance Bill.

In the midst of this struggle the British Parliament met at the end of October for the autumn session. The session had been rendered necessary by the introduction in the spring of Mr. Lloyd George's Insurance Bill, a measure of the most far-reaching and complex kind. This measure, which is dealt with elsewhere, was welcomed on its introduction by all parties, but in detail it was attacked from many quarters, and the Government wisely decided to give the fullest possible time for its discussion—hence the autumn session.

The year, which had witnessed among other incidents the Coronation of King George V., the Imperial Conference, and the sensational episode at Sidney Street, drew to a close with many great issues in suspense, with a crisis in the Tory party caused by the resignation of Mr. Balfour, the announcement of a measure providing for Manhood Suffrage, and the abolition of Plural Voting, with the discontent of labour smouldering—prices still rising and wages still unraised—with the conflict on Home Rule and Welsh Disestablishment imminent—with the Turko-Italian War still raging, and with a revival of the railway crisis imminent. The Commission appointed in the midst of the August conflict reported towards the end of October. They did not recommend full recognition, but advocated an important advance in that direction. The railwaymen, however, expressed great dissatisfaction with the result, and another strike seemed probable. In the mining world also there was menace of a universal strike for a minimum wage.

Happily, abroad, the sky was brightening, and the year closed with a distinct improvement in the feeling between Great Britain and Germany. Why that feeling had been so deeply disturbed remained unexplained; but the experience of the summer had shown both countries the danger of drifting into misunderstandings and menaces, and the lesson had not been profitless.

SECTION I.—NATIONAL INSURANCE.

Mr. Lloyd George's Scheme.—Part I.—Sickness and Disablement.

Who the Insured Persons Are.—Every employed person, male or female, not more than 65 years of age, and whose income does not exceed £160 a year (£3. 1s. 6d. per week), no matter what the nature of the employment may be, will be **compulsorily insured**, except:—

(1) Commission agents working for more than one employer; (2) jobbing gardeners, washerwomen, sempstresses, &c., working on their own account; (3) wives employed by husbands; (4) casual domestic employes and casual labourers not employed for business purposes, e.g., luggage carriers; (5) soldiers and sailors, for whom a separate scheme is proposed (see below); (6) pensionable employes of the Crown or of local authorities.

Outworkers in any trade in which an order under Part VI. of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, has been made (i.e., a trade in which a particulars ticket is required when giving out work) will be included.

Other persons, whose total income does not exceed £160 a year, and who either (1) earn their own livings, or (2) have been employed contributors for five years or more, may become **voluntary contributors**.

Voluntary contributors under 45 years of age, who join during the first six months, will pay 7d. men, 6d. women. Above 45 years of age a higher rate will be payable. The State contribution will be 2d. per week.*

Three weeks are allowed in each year for which the payments need not be made up if the insured person be unemployed and fall into arrears. No contributions will be demanded whilst benefit is being received. The rate is a flat one. No difference of age, from 21 to 65, or occupation alters the amount of contribution.

How the Contributions are Collected.—Each insured person will be provided with a card, to which it will be the duty of the employer to affix each week adhesive stamps to the amount of his own and the insured person's contribution. The employer is to be responsible,

but he may deduct the amount of the workman's contribution from the latter's wages. When an insured person has more than one employer in the course of a week, the first employer will be responsible for the payment.

On handing over his stamped card, a member of an approved society (see later) will be entitled in the books of the society to the value of the stamps. To the society in its turn the amount will be paid or credited by the insurance commissioners.

How the Cost is Allocated.—The weekly contributions generally payable by the **compulsorily insured worker, the employer, and the State** are here set out in tabular form:—

| Wages | Men. | | | | Women. | | | |
|--------------------------------|--------|----------|-------|-------|--------|----------|-------|-------|
| | Worker | Employer | State | Total | Worker | Employer | State | Total |
| For persons from 21 to 65 yrs. | | | | | | | | |
| 15/- a week or over | d. | d. | d. | d. | d. | d. | d. | d. |
| Over 2/- to 2/6 a day | 4 | 3 | 2 | 9 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 8 |
| Over 1/6 to 2/- a day | 3 | 4 | 2 | 9 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 8 |
| 1/6 or less a day | 2 | 5 | 2 | 9 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 8 |
| Under 21 years | 1 | 6 | 2 | 9 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 8 |
| All wages | 4 | 3 | 2 | 9 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 8 |

But the Insurance Commissioners (see below) may issue orders specifying trades in which the above contributions may be reduced by 2d. for men (1d. off the employer's share and 1d. off the worker's), and by 1½d. for women (1d. off the employer's share and 1d. off the worker's), provided that the employer undertakes to pay full wages, which must not be less than the rates of benefit specified below, for at least the first six weeks of sickness. For sickness beyond this period the insured person will come on his club up to the limits allowed to other members.

The Amount and Duration of Sick Benefits.

Minimum Benefits for the Insured.

The contributions have been arranged so as to enable an approved society to grant these minimum benefits:—

(1) Free medical attendance and medicine throughout life, commencing six months after the Act is in force.

(2) Sick pay, starting from the fourth day of sickness, after six months' membership (see below).*

(3) Disablement pay for sickness lasting more than six months, after a minimum of two years' membership.*

| Age | Men | | | Women | | |
|--|---------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| | 1st 13 weeks. | 2nd 13 weeks. | Disablement until 70. | 1st 13 weeks. | 2nd 13 weeks. | Disablement until 70. |
| Between 16 and 21 (unmarried) | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| Between 16 and 21 (married) | 5 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 4 0 | 4 0 | 4 0 |
| Between 21 and 50 | 10 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 7 6 | 5 0 | 5 0 |
| Over 50 (if 500 contributions paid) | 10 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 7 6 | 5 0 | 5 0 |
| Between 50 and 60 (if 500 con. not paid) | 10 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 7 6 | 5 0 | 5 0 |
| Over 60 (if 500 contributions not paid) | 7 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 6 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 |
| Over 60 (if 500 contributions not paid) | 5 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 | 5 0 |

Reductions will be made when more than three contributions a year are in arrears.

*Special rates apply to married women voluntary contributors.

(4) **Maternity benefit of 30s. to an insured woman or 30s. to the wife of an insured man.** A woman who is insured herself and whose husband is also insured will receive 30s. in respect of each —£3 in all.

But when entitled to maternity benefit a woman cannot receive sickness, disablement, or medical benefit in respect of her confinement.

(5) **Treatment for phthisis patients in sanatoria,** to be built partly by a special grant of 1½ millions of money by Parliament. Sick or disablement benefit will be paid to a man's dependents whilst he is under treatment in a sanatorium. Institutions will later on be provided for similar treatment of other diseases.

For illness due to accident no sick or disablement pay can be claimed, unless the compensation under the Workmen's Compensation or other Acts, or damages recovered fall short of the amount of the sick or disablement benefit. In this case the compensation will be supplemented so as to bring it up to the sickness or disablement benefit. Reduction of sick pay takes place

when it exceeds two-thirds of an insured person's ordinary wages, but compensation in some other form of benefit must in this case be given.

Membership of more than one society is not forbidden by the Bill. An insured person, however, must choose to which approved society he desires that contributions paid under the Bill by himself, his employer, and the State should be credited. Other insurances, apart from the Bill, are his own concern, with the proviso, however, that if during sickness he would receive from his various societies more than his usual earnings, his benefits under the Bill will be reduced by the amount of the excess.

Additional Benefits.—If after three years, on valuation, a society is found to have a surplus—and every well-managed society should have a large surplus—a scheme for additional benefits will be drawn up. These may include: (1) **Free medical attendance for uninsured wives and children;** (2) **increased sick pay or maternity benefit;** (3) **convalescent allowances;** (4) **old age pension at an earlier age than 70;** (5) **benevolent fund for distressed members.**

Four Channels of Administration.

(A) **What is an Approved Society?**—The approved societies which may be approved societies which will administer the Act, may be friendly societies of any description, trade unions, or other organisations which satisfy the following conditions of approval:—

(1) A minimum membership, probably 5,000, which may be divided up into any number of branches.

Small societies may, for the purposes of the Act, (a) unite and thus form a society with branches, or join one of the affiliated orders.

(b) They may federate with kindred societies and establish a joint committee to deal with surpluses or deficits under the Act in the same way as the central organisation of an affiliated order.

(c) They may group themselves in county and county borough areas, establishing in each case a central fund under the management of the local Health Committee, and may thus mutually insure themselves against exceptional fluctuations of their liabilities for the payment of benefits. Similar provisions as to surpluses or deficits will apply.

(2) Not working for a profit, i.e., all surplus funds must be distributed in benefits.

(3) Absolute self-government and election of all officers for both local and central organisation.

(4) Giving security for due performance of obligations.

(5) Keeping separate accounts for the State scheme in the form prescribed.

(6) Government audit when required.

(7) Actuarial valuation every three years.

(8) Generally complying with and carrying out the provisions of the Act.

Societies will have complete liberty, as now, to accept or refuse members, with this exception, that **no person may be refused membership merely on the ground of age.** Indeed, age of entry

will be immaterial, for in respect of every person entering over 16 years old a society will be credited by the Insurance Commissioners with the proper reserve necessary to meet the estimated loss arising through the acceptance of him as a member on the same terms as at the age of 16.

The funds to provide these reserves will be accumulated in about 15½ years by withholding benefits from persons under 16, and by a weekly deduction from all contributions to societies of 1½d. per man and 1½d. per woman.

This difficulty of age of entry will rapidly decrease in importance, because later on most, if not all, insured persons will enter at 16.

If a branch of an approved society or a small society which has linked up with other small societies as stated above, on valuation shows a surplus, half will be devoted to additional benefits for the branch or society, and half will be transferred to the central fund of the Order or federation so as to meet possible deficiencies in other branches or affiliated societies. A deficiency in a society or Order must be met by:—

(1) A levy, or (2) a reduction of sick pay, or (3) an increase of the period that must elapse between payments of full sickness benefits.

(B) **Employers' Provident and similar funds** may become approved societies provided:—

(i.) The managing officials are elected by the workmen by ballot, though one-fourth representation may be given to the employer.

(ii.) The employer is liable to as great an extent as he would be otherwise under the Act in respect of his employés.

(iii.) Membership is not made a condition of employment.

If the employer is responsible for the solvency of the fund, or substantial contributions to the benefits, he may have one-fourth representation in the management of the society; but all officials must be elected by ballot. Employers must have the same right of transfer to other societies as other insured persons possess.

A special fund, to be managed by the Board of Trade, the shipowners, and the persons employed, will be established for the mercantile marine.

(C) Post-office Deposit Contributors.—

A person compulsorily insured who fails to join or is expelled from a society, and cannot get himself accepted by another society, will be dealt with on a different basis, which has been deliberately arranged so as to be less advantageous than membership of an approved society, for it is the direct intention of the Bill to encourage Friendly Society membership. Such a person's contributions, and those of his employer and the State, will be credited to him in a Post-office deposit fund. The duration of his benefits will depend on the amount standing to his credit in the Fund. When his withdrawals for sick pay, the

cost of medical attendance or treatment in a sanatorium, and the proportional cost of administration, have exhausted his deposit his benefits will cease, except that medical and sanatorium benefit will be continued until the end of the current year.

The Post-office insurance will include resident employed foreigners who have not been members of societies for five years. No State grant, however, will be made in their cases. The Post-office scheme comes up automatically for reconsideration on January 1st, 1915.

(D) Soldiers and sailors are dealt with separately, for whilst in the service of the Crown they are already cared for. A deduction from wages of 1½d. per week is to be made in order to provide, with assistance from public funds, the necessary reserve which will enable them to become members of societies on equal terms with civilians on leaving the service. If on retirement a soldier or sailor proves that he cannot obtain admission to a Friendly Society on account of the state of his health he will be allowed to remain a member of a special Navy and Army insurance fund.

Local Health Committees.

Their Constitution.—In every county and county borough a committee will be set up composed of:—

(1) Persons, some of whom must be members of the sanitary authorities, nominated by the County Councils or County Boroughs.

(2) Persons representing approved Friendly Societies.

(3) Persons representing the Post-office Deposit contributors.

(4) Duly qualified medical practitioners.

(5) Other persons nominated by the Insurance Commissioners.

The duties of the local Health Committees will be:—

(1) To administer medical and sanatorium benefit for all insured persons whether members of approved societies or deposit contributors;

(2) To administer the Post-office Deposit insurance;

(3) To consider and make recommendations concerning the public health in their areas;

(4) To demand enquiries as to the enforcement of Public Health, Factory, Housing, &c., Acts;

(5) Generally to see to it that local authorities, responsible for the enforcement of Acts bearing on the prevention of disease, do their duty;

(6) To disseminate information on public health matters.

If, after a Home Office or Local

The Prospect of a Reduction of the Pension Age.

All contributions under the Bill will be paid into a National Health Insurance Fund, controlled by the Insurance Commissioners and invested by the National Debt Commissioners. Societies will be credited with and paid

Government Board enquiry, it is found that excessive sickness in a locality is due to bad conditions of employment, or insanitary housing, or defective water supply, or neglect on the part of a public authority to carry out duties entrusted to it, the offending person, corporation, or public authority may be required to make good all extra expenditure incurred by the approved societies or the local Health Committees because of this neglect.

In organising medical benefit each local Health Committee will draw up a list of medical practitioners qualified and willing to attend insured persons, and within limits laid down by the Insurance Commissioners will make arrangements for paying them.

From this list an insured person will choose the doctor whom he desires to attend him. If he neglects to state his choice a doctor will be allotted to him by the committee. The committee may require persons above a certain income to make their own medical arrangements, contributing to the cost the amount which otherwise would have been expended in medical benefit. Similarly the local Health Committee will make proper provision for the supply of drugs and medical appliances to insured persons by properly qualified chemists and druggists.

interest on contributions in respect of their members.

But societies will be allowed to invest themselves four-sevenths in the case of men and one-half in the case of women, of all money available for investment.

Arrangements are made for wiping out the deficiency which must arise in a universal scheme with a uniform rate, when a large number of people enter at an age when their contributions are actually inadequate to pay for the benefit guaranteed to them. After 15 to 16 years, when a fund will have been accumulated to cover this, increased benefits, e.g., the reduction of the pension age, will be declared.

The Insurance Commissioners will be the new Government Department responsible for the administration of the Act. They are to have very wide powers of making regulations to cover the host of detailed difficulties which

only experience will disclose, and to exercise considerable supervision over the work of the societies. An Advisory Committee of employers and experts in Friendly Society management will be appointed to assist them.

Distraint during Sickness.—Whilst an insured person is in receipt of sickness benefit, and for 14 days afterwards, it will be illegal to levy any distress or execution on the premises in which he is living, or to take any proceedings for ejectment. An amendment proposed by Mr. Lloyd George limits the operation of this to cases in which a doctor certifies that there would be danger to life.

The National Insurance Fund.

ESTIMATED INCOME OF THE NATIONAL INSURANCE FUND FROM ALL SOURCES.

| Year. | Compulsory Contributors. | | Voluntary Contributors. | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------------|----------|-------------|
| | Men. | Women. | Men. | Women. | Total. |
| 1912-13 | £11,135,000 | £4,051,000 | £1,007,000 | £289,000 | £16,482,000 |
| 1913-14 | 12,415,000 | 4,511,000 | 1,107,000 | 315,000 | 18,348,000 |
| 1914-15 | 12,683,000 | 4,602,000 | 1,111,000 | 315,000 | 18,711,000 |
| 1915-16 | 12,951,000 | 4,693,000 | 1,111,000 | 315,000 | 19,070,000 |
| 1916-17 | 13,220,000 | 4,783,000 | 1,111,000 | 317,000 | 19,431,000 |
| 1917-18 | 13,467,000 | 4,869,000 | 1,107,000 | 316,000 | 19,759,000 |
| 1922-23 | 14,594,000 | 5,267,000 | 1,046,000 | 301,000 | 21,208,000 |
| 1927-28 | 15,689,000 | 5,661,000 | 946,000 | 272,000 | 22,568,000 |

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE IN EACH YEAR.

| | | | | | |
|---------------|------------|------------|----------|----------|------------|
| 1912-13 | £5,090,000 | £1,850,000 | £343,000 | £102,000 | £7,385,000 |
| 1913-14 | 9,452,000 | 3,246,000 | 693,000 | 187,000 | 13,578,000 |
| 1914-15 | 10,988,000 | 3,710,000 | 812,000 | 221,000 | 15,731,000 |
| 1915-16 | 11,439,000 | 3,852,000 | 827,000 | 227,000 | 16,338,000 |
| 1916-17 | 11,807,000 | 3,958,000 | 830,000 | 230,000 | 16,825,000 |
| 1917-18 | 12,146,000 | 4,052,000 | 833,000 | 232,000 | 17,263,000 |
| 1922-23 | 13,897,000 | 4,515,000 | 878,000 | 246,000 | 19,536,000 |
| 1927-28 | 15,165,000 | 4,925,000 | 876,000 | 249,000 | 21,215,000 |

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STATE. Thousands omitted.

| Year | Men. | Women | Sana- toria. | Total. | Year. | Men | Women. | Sana- toria. | Total. |
|---------|---------|---------|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------------|---------|
| | 1,000 £ | 1,000 £ | 1,000 £ | 1,000 £ | | 1,000 £ | 1,000 £ | 1,000 £ | 1,000 £ |
| 1912-13 | 1,344 | 550 | 50 | 1,944 | 1916-17 | 3,126 | 1,180 | 60 | 4,366 |
| 1913-14 | 2,511 | 967 | 56 | 3,534 | 1917-18 | 3,211 | 1,206 | 61 | 4,478 |
| 1914-15 | 2,920 | 1,107 | 57 | 4,084 | 1922-23 | 3,655 | 1,340 | 66 | 5,061 |
| 1915-16 | 3,033 | 1,149 | 58 | 4,240 | 1927-28 | 3,969 | 1,457 | 72 | 5,498 |

These figures, however, do not include the amounts paid by the State in respect of the P.O. deposit scheme, nor the cost of central administration.

Trade Union Actuary's Independent Report.

Mr. A. Levine, a member of the Council of the Institute of Actuaries, submitted in October an interesting report to the Labour Party on the Insurance Bill and its probable effect on trade unions. The trade unions which he was asked to consider specially embraced the most important organisations of the building and engineering groups of trades.

He lays down that it will be necessary for a trade union, in order to retain its hold on its members, either to become an approved society under the Bill or to run a subsidiary approved society, as many present members of trade unions have joined principally because of the sickness and unemployment benefits offered.

A trade union, however, will be well advised (1) to adhere to present arrangements with members not compulsorily insured through its agency, but (2) to revise its scale of benefits so as to supplement benefits under the Bill for members compulsorily insured. The existing funds would, of course, remain available for the other benefits, principally strike pay and superannuation.

"From what has been said," Mr. Levine concludes, "it will be seen that in my opinion the final effect of the Bill will be a distinct strengthening of the financial position of the unions, and consequently an improvement in the security for the benefits not transferred to the Government section."

THE COST OF INSURANCE.

The Actuarial Basis of the Bill.

A scheme so enormous as that proposed by Mr. Lloyd George necessarily lays itself open to criticism in detail. It is easy enough to urge the undoubted advantage of an increase of this benefit, or a reduction of that rate of contribution. But it must be recollected that these details have to be considered not only on their own merits but with reference to their effect on the rest of the scheme, which, on its financial side, is an elaborately-devised system of balances and counterbalances. The proposed benefits and organisation were submitted to two of the ablest actuaries of the day (Messrs. G. F. Hardy and H. B. Wyatt), and on their calculations the whole financial basis of the scheme rests.

Their report (Cd. 5681) deals separately with compulsory and voluntary contributions, but as the additional condition has been laid down in committee that the income of voluntary contributors must not exceed £160 per annum, the voluntary figures require considerable modification.

The number of persons who at the commencement (May 1st, 1912) would come within the scheme is shown in the table at the foot of the page.

There are no statistics dealing adequately with the rates of sickness in the United Kingdom generally, and the actuaries were forced to rely on the **experience of the Manchester Unity of Oddfellows during the years 1893-97**. There are other statistics available, but these are on the whole the most representative and the most recent.

It should be pointed out, though, that they only refer to male lives, and that the average member of a Friendly Society is on the whole in health and general character above the usual level of his particular class. The estimated number of weeks' sickness per contributor per annum, excluding sickness due to accident, for which benefit will not be payable under the Bill, is as follows:—

ESTIMATED SICKNESS PER ANNUM.

| Age | No. of weeks | Age | No. of weeks. |
|-----|--------------|-----|---------------|
| 16 | 1·005 | 50 | 2·384 |
| 20 | ·901 | 60 | 5·198 |
| 30 | 1·007 | 69 | 13·224 |
| 40 | 1·449 | | |

On the assumption that contributions will not be payable during the sickness or unemployment of the insured person, that management expenses may be put at 4s. per member per annum, and that medical benefit will cost 6s. per head per annum, the annual contributions at age 16 necessary to provide for the "minimum" benefits were put at £1367 (£1. 7s. 4d.) per man and £1158 (£1. 3s. 2d.) per woman. But, by the scheme, the State provides two-ninths of the former and one-fourth of the latter. Thus the actual cost to the societies of the minimum benefits is expected to average out at £1063 (£1. 1s. 3d.) per man and £869 (17s. 4½d.) per woman. The contributions of 7d. per man per week and 6d. per woman per week, payable jointly by the employer and the insured person, are actually 11·34 per cent. and 12·65 per cent. in excess of these amounts.

It is from the surplus that with careful management may be expected to accrue from this margin, which indeed under all the circumstances is by no means large, that the "additional benefits" are to be paid.

The reserve values, which have to be created in order that all persons of whatever age may enter on the same terms as at age 16, are estimated to total over 60 millions sterling. The actuaries calculate that the 1½d. per man and 1½d. per woman per week retained by the Insurance Commissioners, with the amounts accruing by the accumulation of the contributions of a boy under 16 above 4s. 8d. per annum, and of a girl above 4s. 6d. per annum, will together at compound interest reach this sum in from 15½ to 16 years.

NUMBER OF INSURED PERSONS.

| | Members of Approved Societies. | | Deposit Contributors | Contributors under age 16. | Totals. |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------|----------------------|----------------------------|------------|
| | Compulsory. | Voluntary | | | |
| Men | 8,579,000 | 625,000 | 638,000 | 493,000 | 10,335,000 |
| Women:— | | | | | |
| Spinsters and widows .. | 3,080,000 | 204,000 | 191,000 | — | — |
| Married | 548,000 | — | 53,000 | — | — |
| Total women | 3,628,000 | 204,000 | 244,000 | 320,000 | 4,396,000 |
| Both sexes | 12,207,000 | 829,000 | 882,000 | 813,000 | 14,731,000 |

The number of contributors who will be members of approved societies in later years is estimated as follows:—

| Year. | Compulsory. | | | Voluntary. | | |
|------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|------------|---------|-------------|
| | Men. | Women. | Both sexes. | Men. | Women. | Both sexes. |
| 1912-13 .. | 8,579,000 | 3,628,000 | 12,207,000 | 625,000 | 204,000 | 829,000 |
| 1917-18 .. | 9,586,000 | 4,020,000 | 13,606,000 | 620,000 | 198,000 | 818,000 |
| 1922-23 .. | 10,412,000 | 4,355,000 | 14,767,000 | 599,000 | 196,000 | 795,000 |
| 1927-28 .. | 11,211,000 | 4,687,000 | 15,898,000 | 573,000 | 192,000 | 765,000 |

NATIONAL INSURANCE.

The English and German Systems.

The German insurance laws have to a large extent inspired and influenced the proposals of Mr. Lloyd George, but there are wide divergencies.

The most fundamental difference concerns organisation, for whilst here sickness and invalidity or disablement insurance are part of the same scheme, in Germany two separate organisations working under different laws and almost completely independent of each other deal with them.

Thus, when a German workman has run through his sickness benefit, and is permanently disabled, he has to apply to another authority, with which until then he has not come into contact, for an invalidity pension; and not infrequently some time elapses between the end of the one and the commencement of the other.

The English scheme works chiefly through voluntary friendly societies; the German on the other hand is much more bureaucratic in its management and does not nearly to the same extent adopt the principle of self-government.

Under the English Bill no contributions need be paid during temporary unemployment to the extent of three weeks per annum. For arrears beyond this period some reduction of benefit takes place, but complete suspension only occurs if arrears exceed 13 weeks per annum. In Germany, however, no workman can claim any benefit unless he is actually in employment, or if unemployed has kept up both his own and his employer's contributions, subject to the provision that claims arising within three weeks of cessation of membership by reason of unemployment hold good.

The English Bill is more comprehensive than either German scheme.

The 14 million persons to be compulsorily insured in the United Kingdom with the estimated million voluntary insurers form about 33 per cent. of the total population. The number insured against sickness in Germany in 1909 was 13,385,290, and against invalidity was 15,444,300. These were respectively about 21 per cent. and 24 per cent. of

the population. The reason for the smaller percentages is that in Germany the compulsory provisions do not include agricultural labourers, domestic servants, and home workers, and for other wage earners the income limit is fixed at £100 per annum.

Contributions and benefits vary in Germany according to the income of the insured person. This will be seen from the table below, which compares the rates of contributions and benefits in the two countries for adult wage-earners.

The cost to German employers of compulsory insurance—including insurance against accidents, which are treated in a similar way to sickness—works out at an average at about 3·8 per cent. of wages. The actual cost per workman to the employer depends on the industry, but some examples are interesting. At Krupp's steel and iron works the cost was £3. 2s. 8d. in 1907; the Vulcan Shipbuilding Company, Stettin, paid £2. 8s. 2d. in 1909, of which £1. 9s. 7d. was for accident insurance; the Arenburg Mining and Smelting Company in 1909 paid £3. 15s. 2½d. per man for sickness and invalidity insurance, and £1. 12s. 1d. for accident insurance. Despite these apparently heavy charges there is a general consensus of opinion in favour of the insurance laws amongst German employers, and many firms supplement the State insurance by additional benefits of various kinds.

Compulsory insurance against sickness is also required in **Hungary** and **Luxembourg** for industrial and commercial workpeople whose yearly earnings do not exceed £100 in the first and £120 in the second; in **Austria** for industrial workpeople generally, in **Norway** under an Act which came into force on July 1st of this year for wage-earners generally, except deep-sea sailors and persons whose incomes exceed £77. 15s. 6d. in towns, and £66. 13s. 4d. in the country; in **France** for miners; and in **Belgium** for miners and seamen. Agricultural labourers and domestic servants are excluded in all these countries except Norway.

CONTRIBUTIONS AND BENEFITS.

| Weekly Income. | UNITED KINGDOM | | | | | | | | | | GERMANY. | | | | | |
|----------------|----------------|-------|-----------|-------------------|--------|---------------|--------|---------------------|---------------------------|----|-----------------------------|-----------------------|----|----|----|--|
| | Contributions. | | | Sickness Benefit. | | | | Disability Benefit. | Contributions (combined). | | Sickness Benefit. 26 weeks. | Invalidity Benefit. * | | | | |
| | Worker. | | Employer. | 1st 13 weeks. | | 2nd 13 weeks. | Worker | | Em'p'lr. | | | | | | | |
| | Men. | W'm'n | | Men. | Women. | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Shillings. | d. | d. | | s. | s. | d. | s. | s. | d. | d. | s. | d. | s. | d. | | |
| 30 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 10½ | 6½ | 15 | 0 | 5 | 3½ | | |
| 27 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 9½ | 6 | 13 | 6 | 5 | 3½ | | |
| 24 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 9 | 5½ | 12 | 0 | 5 | 3½ | | |
| 21 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 7½ | 4½ | 10 | 6 | 4 | 8½ | | |
| 20 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 7½ | 4½ | 10 | 0 | 4 | 8½ | | |
| 18 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 6½ | 4½ | 9 | 0 | 4 | 8½ | | |
| | | | Men | Wn. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5½ | 3½ | 7 | 6 | 4 | 1 | |
| 12 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 4½ | 3½ | 6 | 0 | 4 | 1 | |
| 9 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 3½ | 2½ | 4 | 6 | 3 | 5 | |
| 6 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 2½ | 1½ | 3 | 0 | 2 | 8½ | |

* After 20 years contributions.

FRIENDLY SOCIETY OPINION.

BY THE SECRETARY OF THE HEARTS OF OAK BENEFIT SOCIETY.

The objective of the scheme had been idealised by the Friendly Societies for years. Voluntary effort by the Societies, zealous, energetic, unselfish, was unable, unassisted, to bring within the protecting shelter of their institutions those who could but would not, and those who would but could not, come within a system of insurance against sickness. Ten millions of these were outside, six millions were inside, these Societies. Two hundred and fifty thousand lapses from membership occurred every year, and 30 per cent. of pauperism was held to be due to sickness resulting in poverty. Here was the problem. The Chancellor of the Exchequer recognised its inherent difficulties, and, recognising also that the British Friendly Society system already possessed the machinery to deal with this problem, but was without adequate driving power to render their machinery completely effective, produced the power and invited their co-operation.

When the text of the Bill was issued to the public, many of its provisions were found to be incompatible with the independence of the Friendly Societies, and many of the leading officials perceived that it would deal a deadly blow to their respective organisations. At the National Conference of Friendly Societies the president reported to the delegates present that the Bill was entirely different to that which had been provisionally agreed upon between the Committee of the Conference and the Chancellor of the Exchequer at the various discussions which had taken place between them.

The amendments considered fundamental in Friendly Society opinion were summarised by the annual meeting at Edinburgh, held on October 12th and 13th, as follows:—

(1) That approved Societies shall be constituted on the basis of self-management by the members; (2) that the administration of the medical benefit shall be vested in approved Societies, or, at their option, through the local Health Committees, and that arrangements shall be made to ensure medical attendance for all existing members of Friendly Societies who are excluded from State scheme, on the same terms and conditions as those members who become insured persons under the Bill; (3) that approved Societies shall have a majority of representatives on the local Health Committees; (4) that sickness benefit be given from the first (instead of fourth) day of the illness; (5) that the member's own contribution be paid over to approved Societies, and be invested by them; (6) that the proposals to use portions of the surpluses of approved Societies for the benefit of deposit contributors be strongly opposed, and if such contributors need help, the State to make special grants to contributors refused by approved Societies; (7) that the amount allowed for management expenses be clearly stated in the Bill; (8) that the powers of local Medical Committees should be advisory only; (9) that the powers proposed to be given to the local Health Committees shall not be transferred to existing county or borough authorities; (10) that persons in

receipt of incomes exceeding £100 per annum be allowed to become voluntary members of an approved Society, but not entitled to the Government subsidy, but entitled to take part in the management of the society; (11) that the Government be required to amend the Bill for the purpose of making adequate provision out of the existing reserves for the full liabilities of all permanent sick, aged, and all other members who will be left on the hands of the societies.

On October 9th a private Conference had been called by the Chancellor of the Exchequer at the Treasury, between representatives of the medical profession and the Friendly Societies, for the purpose of discussing points of difference between them, and adjourned till the following Monday. On Thursday, October 19th, the date of the Albert Hall mass meeting, a similar Conference was called between the representatives of the Collecting and Industrial Insurance Companies, Dividing Societies, &c., and the Friendly Societies, at which points of difference were discussed. At the close of this Conference the Chancellor received the members of the Committee of the National Conference of Friendly Societies, who submitted to him the requirements as adopted by the Conference at Edinburgh on the previous Friday.

At the Mass Meeting at the Royal Albert Hall, the chairman announced that the Chancellor had conceded nine of the 11 points submitted to him, the two which remained unsettled being (1) that relating to payment of sickness benefit from the first day as required by the Societies, instead of from the fourth day as laid down in the Bill, and (2) the question at issue between the doctors and the Friendly Societies. The Royal Albert Hall meeting unanimously adopted a resolution calling for sickness benefit being payable from the first day of illness.

The final resolution put from the chair was as follows:—

"The Committee of the National Conference of Friendly Societies, having had a prolonged interview with the Chancellor of the Exchequer on the subject of the minimum demands put forward by the Edinburgh Conference, and having expressed themselves satisfied that the alterations in the Bill now promised by the Chancellor will meet the reasonable and just demands of the Friendly Societies, this meeting therefore will recommend on the enactment of the measure in accordance with these assurances its acceptance by the Friendly Societies; and, further, this meeting appreciates the conciliatory attitude of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in endeavouring to reconcile the differences existing between the Friendly Societies and the various interests concerned under the Bill."

This was not by any means received with the same unanimity as those which had preceded it. It was, however, declared by the chairman to be carried by a show of hands.

C. W. BURNES.

THE PROVISION OF MEDICAL BENEFIT.

BY THE MEDICAL SECRETARY BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

The British Medical Association had foreseen that the existing arrangements for the provision of medical attendance to the poorer classes were unsatisfactory from the point of view both of the public and the profession, and that some reform must be undertaken. The two possible lines of reform appeared to be (a) the extension of facilities for insurance against the cost of medical attendance and treatment, and (b) the provision of such attendance and treatment at the public expense through the local health authorities, or conceivably through the public assistance authority. The Association was of opinion that provision by insurance should first be attempted.

The policy formulated by the Association, and supported by the profession generally, with respect to the Insurance Bill was one of approval of its general objects and acceptance of the main principles, but objection to the scheme for the provision of medical benefit.

The medical profession considered that the most important point was to preserve the principle of private practice as calculated to afford a more efficient service to the insured, as well as one more satisfactory to the medical profession, than the employment of specially selected officers appointed by the approved societies or local Health Committees. They urged that a patient would have more confidence in the doctor whom he selected for himself, and would derive, therefore, more benefit from his attendance than if the doctor were appointed even by the majority of the society of which the patient was a member. Free choice of doctor by patient would tend to efficiency, and make the service more popular. Secondly, the profession considered that if the principle of free choice of doctor were granted there could be no useful purpose in leaving the control of administration of medical benefits in the hands of separate societies. It was much better on all grounds that there should be a uniform system of administration in the hands of the local Health Committee. Thirdly, the profession considered that the Bill tended to interfere with the relation of doctor and patient to a greater extent than its public objects warranted. Hence, a demand was put forward that an income limit of £2 a week should be imposed, and that those whose income exceeded the limit should be required to make their own

arrangements for medical attendance and treatment, receiving, however, the pecuniary equivalent of their medical benefit in the form of a contribution towards the cost of their medical attendance. Fourthly, the profession urged that, having regard to the very important medical aspects of the Insurance Scheme, medical practitioners who had had experience of practice among the classes from which the insured would chiefly be drawn should be included among the Insurance Commissioners, the Central Advisory Committee, and the local Health Committee, and also that, to facilitate the smooth working of the medical service, statutory recognition should be given to local Medical Committees representative of the profession in the area of each local Health Committee. On the subject of remuneration many members of the profession felt strongly that the system of payment of a fixed rate per head per annum had proved in past experience of club practice to be unsatisfactory, and that a system of payment per attendance should be substituted, but the profession was content that the question of remuneration should be left absolutely open in the Bill itself.

Representations were made to the Government on these lines, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer agreed to most of the points put before him except as regards the income limit. As to that, he opposed the statutory fixation of a definite limit throughout the country, but agreed that local Health Committees might be empowered to fix such limits. The House of Commons has transferred the administration of medical benefits to the local Health Committees, and has approved the principle of free choice of doctor, and of local option as regards the income limit. On the other hand, it has adopted a provision for giving medical benefit through any system or organisation existing at the time of passing of the Act which, in the opinion of the medical profession, conflicts with the principles of administration of medical benefit and of free choice of doctor previously approved. The attitude of the profession towards the Bill is still undetermined at the time of preparation of this Memorandum, much opposition being caused by the amendment last mentioned, and perhaps, in a smaller degree, by the failure to provide a statutory fixed income limit.

J. SMITH WHITAKER, M.R.C.S.

INSURANCE OFFICES AND THE BILL.

The National Insurance Bill, as it at present stands, does not cover the same ground as that occupied by the offices carrying on ordinary and industrial insurance. The object of the Bill is to make more or less continuous provision for the sick and unemployed, primarily during the working period of life. The main object of the life offices is to make provision for death, or, under endowment schemes, for a time of more or less advanced age when working days are over. The impetus which may be expected to be given to insurance generally by the adoption of the principle by the State will be felt primarily by the industrial offices, as they are

so closely in touch with the working classes. In addition, there will be a large number of clerks and others who will come within the scope of the Bill, and who will be in a position to afford the larger premium necessary to cover ordinary life policies, and this fact should certainly help the ordinary life offices. Thus, neither industrial nor ordinary life assurance companies have anything to fear, and if they take advantage of this opportunity, as many of them will doubtless do, they may confidently look for an increase in the volume of their business as a result of the National Insurance Bill becoming law.

OSCAR DARTON, F.C.A., F.S.S.

THE EMPLOYERS' POINT OF VIEW.

By THE RT. HON. RUSSELL REA.

You do not ask my opinion of the National Insurance Bill as a Member of Parliament, or a citizen, or a human being, but simply as an employer of labour, that is, as an animated machine whose functions require the employment of various classes of labouring men at several of our principal ports. As an intelligent machine, destitute of human feeling, I admit, in common with every other intelligent person, that an insufficient share of the national income is applied to the maintenance and comfort of the workers, and that this mal-distribution impairs the efficiency of our national industrial and commercial organism. It even diminishes our total production and our wealth. I see also that a re-adjustment is not only socially desirable—a point of view you exclude from my consideration on the present occasion—but that it is inevitable. As an employer I must face it, and as a matter of fact it is hitting me in the face at the present moment. It appears to me that an adequate improvement in the condition of the life of the labouring population cannot be effected by additions to money wages alone. It would throw the whole burden upon my class—the employers—in the first instance; and, although we should endeavour to pass it on to the public, we could not do so either speedily or entirely in these days of international competition, and many of us would "go under" in the process. For example, the railway companies could not possibly pay such wages as would fulfil the condition of improvement I have mentioned, and live under their present statutory obligations to the public. What is called "economic friction" could not be overcome by commercial methods, and employers of labour could not get an adequate contribution to the cost of improving the conditions of the working population from the owners of land in town and country, of buildings and minerals, the whole class of mortgagees, debenture holders, in fact, from the idle rich, and from the general wealth of the country.

Therefore I hold that the working classes must not look to increase of wages alone for the improvement in their condition, which they are demanding, and which in my capacity of a human being, I may be forgiven for digressing so far as to say they have a right to demand. The general wealth of the country must contribute to this object. I therefore regard the State contributions to Old Age Pensions, and National Insurance against sickness and unemployment as measures for the more equitable adjustment of the burden of the cost of a great reformation, and, as such, an advantage to the direct employers of labour, only less than the advantage it will be to the workers themselves. If I am taunted by working men that I am accepting these things as contributions in relief of wages, I point out that though theoretically my argument leads towards this conclusion, practically it is not operating in this way. The working classes are getting it both ways; they are getting the increase of wages, and they are getting the State benefits, and I am sure they could never get the same advantages from increase of wages alone, as they are now getting from both sources, while the struggles which a continuous effort to attain this standard of living by increase of wages alone would entail would be ruinous to the employers, to workers, and to the trade of the country.

In conclusion, I would point out that up to a certain point the State can distribute its contribution more equitably and usefully than it would be distributed if the labourers were to get the same amount in the form of wages. Who can doubt that the money distributed as Old Age Pensions is more usefully employed than a similar sum would be if distributed as increased wages to workmen in a certain number of trades which were already strong enough to make their demands effective?

For these reasons, Sir, as a purely selfish employer of labour, I welcome the National Insurance Bill, as I welcomed the Old Age Pensions Act.

RUSSELL REA.

THE CASE OF INSURED WOMEN.

By THE SECRETARY OF THE WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE.

In estimating the value of compulsory industrial insurance for men and for women, the central fact to be kept in mind is the different ways in which the sexes are affected by marriage. Broadly, the married man is riveted to wage-earning—the married woman taken away from it. Thus the need of the woman as worker for insurance is enormously less than the man's. Her working years are the years of maximum vigour and health, and assuming her retirement from industry on marriage, the appropriate premium would

be only a fraction of that demanded in the National Insurance Bill. Single women, however, and some married ones, do not leave work, and a proportion of those who do leave return in later life. This makes the premiums of the Bill more plausible, but they remain too high. Having been out of industry for more than a year, a woman, unless widowed, is not eligible to resume her insurance.* Below the age of 45, widows are only 5 per cent. of the total female population. The proportion in work will, of

course, be appreciably less. Against this put the fact that the lapse of policies of women who have married will release annually no less than 2½ millions of pounds.

This general complaint is, however, less grievous than that to be entered on behalf of particular classes of women workers. At the present time the domestic servant is accustomed to receive during illness both medical attention and full wages. Under the National Insurance Bill she is not to get any money payment unless she ceases to be boarded by her employer. In the ordinary case this will not happen, and the servant will consequently receive medical benefit only. Thus she will pay 3d. per week (the premium for all domestic servants who receive board and lodging), and her employer a similar sum, and be worse off than now. The case of the woman in irregular employment (to which class practically all home workers belong) is not less unsatisfactory. The out-of-work operative has to pay the employer's contribution as well as her own: 6d. a week instead of the 2d. or 3d. she pays when receiving wages. How is she going to pay it? If she fails to pay she will be quickly out of benefit. In trades like that of lace-finishing in Nottingham the employment of the home workers is broken, and they may be without work in the slack season for six or seven weeks. It seems certain that their intermittent payments will entitle them to nothing at all.

It is a further point that in the cases in which widows return to work they tend to enter occupations in which work is irregular.

They become, for instance, charwomen, to whom what has been said of the lace-workers is applicable. It thus appears that the high premiums to be paid by the whole sex in the years of greatest health are not to benefit numbers of those on whose behalf they are excused.

These are a few criticisms out of a great many that might be made. It must, however, be said that the amendments promised by Mr. Lloyd George, under which workers earning less than 1s. 6d. a day are released from any payments, and the wives of insured men are to receive a money payment at maternity of 30s., in addition to medical benefit, are improvements of the greatest magnitude. The Women's Trade Union League, while still regarding the Bill as unfair in its incidence on women as a class and on domestic servants and other female workers as sub-classes, is glad to acknowledge that the alterations cited make the measure much less unfair than it was at its inception.

MARY R. MACARTHUR.

* While this book was in the press the Bill was amended so that women may continue their insurance after marriage either as voluntary or employed contributors at an option which they must exercise within a month after marriage. A reduced voluntary contribution of 3d. will be levied and reduced benefits will be given. Or the married woman who drops her insurance may draw during marriage on her reserve value to the extent of two-thirds either for sickness or distress.

THE TRADE UNIONIST VIEW.

BY THE SECRETARY OF THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS.

I have said from the beginning that the National Insurance Bill was full of magnificent possibilities, and that its introduction emphasizes the era of social legislation inaugurated by the Old Age Pension scheme. Like others, I have feared danger from the operation of the scheme, and I have criticised some of its provisions, notably those of Clause 11. The report of the Labour Party's actuary has shown that the modification of this clause, which most trade unionists desire, cannot be secured without seriously increasing the contributions either of the workmen, the employers, or the State, and though I still wish to see the injured workman in a better position than the measure provides, I feel it will be necessary to wait until surpluses mature before seeking to enforce an amendment which I am sure is necessary.

The Chancellor's recent answers to my questions, questions summarised from interrogations received from various quarters of the country, have removed the probability of misconception in connection with the guarantees demanded by the scheme; interference with the ordinary functions of trade unions by the Insurance Commissioners; the disposal of accumulated surpluses; and the right of smaller unions to administer the benefits of the measure in combination with the General Federation of Trade Unions.

I am personally satisfied that no

trade union need suffer injury through the National Insurance scheme, except such injury as may result from neglect of its opportunities and through failure to shoulder its responsibilities in connection with the administration of the benefits.

No fair-minded person can disregard the actual benefits which the scheme confers. It is certain that an improvement in the national health, and presumably in the national physique, must follow the adoption of free medical treatment and the creation of adequate sanatoria, and, though the financial benefits under the scheme cannot provide comfort, they will at least mitigate the bitterness of the suffering and misery usually accompanying periods of sickness, while the provision of the disability benefit must lighten the load now carried by many families.

There are beneficial clauses in the Bill other than those specifically dealing with insurance, and amongst the most important of these are Clauses 46 and 51. The attempt to place the financial burdens of excessive sickness upon those who are after enquiry adjudged to be responsible for it is an attempt which must appeal to all who love real justice, while Clause 51, which seeks to limit distraint in cases of sickness, is a very obvious and commendable attempt to temper the wind to the shorn lamb.

The chief dangers to be apprehended

at the present moment arise from the inclusion amongst societies who may be approved, of profit-making concerns. I am afraid that while trade unionists and others have been striving to achieve that which for financial reasons is at present impossible they have allowed the enemy to enter in at the

gate, and unless they take immediate action many of the results which the original Bill obviously aimed at will be seriously endangered. I hope to see the movement put up a great fight against the efforts of vested interests to vitiate what is, after all, the greatest social measure of modern times.

W. A. APPLETON.

POOR RELIEF AND INSURANCE.

BY THE CLERK TO THE ROCHEDALE GUARDIANS.

The Insurance Bill, if enacted in anything like its present state, is bound to bring about, sooner or later, a great reduction in outdoor pauperism. Particularly will this be so where pauperism now arises from sickness, maternity, or disablement. Now that the aged people have gone on pensions, if we exclude able-bodied widows with fatherless children, the bulk of outdoor pauperism to-day is made up of cases of sickness, maternity, and disablement. There has been a very large increase of poor law maternity (Outdoor List) since the Midwives Act came into operation. Should the Bill get on the Statute-book, with the full measure of its proposed benefits, no doubt there will be very numerous cases arising from sickness, maternity, and disablement that Guardians will still have to provide outdoor relief for, and that for this reason—there is a statutory limit to the money benefits under the Bill, but there is no statutory limit to poor law relief. Thus the man with a wife and a large family of little children, out of employment through sickness, will not be able to live and provide for his family during his sickness without an addition to the sick pay that the Bill proposes for him. If there is no other source from which he can draw of course he will have to resort to the Guardians. The same may be said of the out-of-work with a large family, who may be entitled to benefits under Part II. (Unemployment Insurance). The Bill itself indicates that persons entitled to receive

its benefits may have to resort to the Guardians for outdoor relief, for Clause 83 reads: "In granting outdoor relief to a person in receipt of or entitled to receive any benefit under this Act, a board of guardians in England shall not take into consideration any such benefit, except so far as such benefit exceeds five shillings per week."

The saving of out-relief expenditure should the Bill go through—and the desire of Poor Law Guardians generally is that it should go through—may be expected to be counterbalanced to some extent by an increase of poor law infirmary patients. Extension of medical benefits always means increase of institutional treatment. This is not because doctors under contract begrudge prolonged attention at the home of the patients, but because they are bound, if they find that the quickest restoration to the health of the patient necessitates institutional treatment, to influence the patient to secure that treatment. The poor law infirmary in most places is likely to be the only institution where such treatment can be afforded. Clause 12 (1) of the Bill shows that persons insured in respect of sickness, maternity, or disablement may have to be dealt with in poor law institutions. Institutional treatment per head far exceeds the cost for outdoor relief.

Poor Law Guardians ought to be represented on the proposed local Health Committees (see Clause 43), and Clause 46 ought to go through.

R. A. LEACH

VOLUNTARY HOSPITALS UNDER THE BILL.

The gigantic scheme of the Insurance Bill proposes to revolutionise the whole existing organisation for the relief of sickness. The sick poor are to be treated at home and to receive sick pay. What of the hospitals then? Have they a future? I think the answer rests with the Voluntary Hospitals themselves. They must depend upon their ability to show that they are doing the work which no one else is doing, and work which must be done. They may have to modify some of their methods. They have often had to do that, and can readily do so again.

If the Insurance Bill is going to do the same work in a better way, it does not matter that the hospitals' day is ended. But it is not. The Insurance Bill will arrange for the treatment at home of certain forms of illness, and that very treatment, be it remem-

bered, is the result of the hospitals' work—they taught what was the right treatment. The aim of the Insurance Bill is to cure a man of his disease. The aim of the hospitals is to destroy disease in man. The hospitals must still provide the great operating theatres, the laboratories for the study of bacteria to which half the illness of life is due; they must still provide the special departments—the light department, the opsonic department, the clinical laboratories. They must still provide the equipment by which disease is to be destroyed. The Insurance Bill is the soldier in the line of battle. The hospital is the arsenal where his weapons are forged. What, therefore, the hospitals must teach the public is, that the Insurance Bill in no way touches the greater part of their work, which is preventive, researchful and educational. E. W. MORRIS.

Part II.—UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE.

The Financial Basis of the Scheme.

The financial basis of the unemployment insurance scheme rests on the actuarial report made by Mr. T. G. Ackland.

From the census figures for 1901, he deduced that the number employed in the several classes of insured trades in March, 1912, will be:—

| | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1. Building Group:— | | |
| Building Trade | 1,248,000 | |
| Mill Sawyers | 23,000 | |
| General Labourers .. | 50,000 | |
| | | 1,321,000 |
| 2. Engineering Groups:— | | |
| Engineers and Iron- founders | 777,000 | |
| Shipbuilders | 137,000 | |
| Coachbuilders | 116,000 | |
| Mill Sawyers | 20,000 | |
| General Labourers | 50,000 | |
| | | 1,100,000 |
| Total | | 2,421,000 |

The data upon which the estimate was made concerned only trade union members, and thus comprised only about one-sixth of the total workmen in the trades. For the 20 years, 1891 to 1910, the mean rates of trade union unemployment in various branches were as follows:—

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (20 YEARS AVERAGE).

| Class of Trade Union. | Annual Aver. Rate of Unem- ployment. | Aver. No. of Days unem- ployed per annum. |
|---|---|--|
| Building (Carpenters and Plumbers only) .. | Per cent. 5.1 | Days. 15.9 |
| Engineering | 5.6 | 17.5 |
| Shipbuilding | 10.4 | 32.4 |
| Coachbuilding | 3.5 | 10.9 |
| Mill Sawyers | 3.6 | 11.2 |

For building, the carpenters and plumbers form a very select class

The Cost of

Total Cost of Benefit.—There are allowances still to be made, e.g., for insured persons who fail to receive benefit during unemployment owing to the working of the "one week's benefit to five weeks' contributions" rule, but it is estimated that the cost of benefit for each man will average out at 18s. 3d. per annum over the insured trades as a whole.

Total Annual Contributions.—63d. per member is the normal weekly contribution. 10 per cent. of this goes in management expenses, leaving 6d. weekly available for benefits. The annual yield of this, however, will be reduced by unemployment, sickness, and short time, during which the sixpences will not be paid. Thus 44 weeks' contributions only per annum can be anticipated. Further, the privilege of compounding, granted to an employer who gives regularity of employment, will reduce his share. Taking all these factors into account, it is estimated that the income of the fund

whose rate of unemployment is very much lower than their fellows. The evidence suggests that, for the whole trade, this rate should be doubled. Allowing for this, and taking the whole group of trades, 8.2 per cent. of workmen were unemployed at any moment, or to put it in another way, each member was out of work on an average for 26.8 days in the year. Considering the groups separately, it appears that in building, the average rate of unemployment was 32.4 days, and in engineering 20.3 days per member per year. This difference supplies the reason for the 7s. per week benefit for engineering, and 6s. per week for building.

At the beginning of 1910, there were 443,444 trade unionists in the trades concerned, and of these 404,045 were eligible to receive unemployed benefits, provided by the unions. The scheme will, therefore, secure **unemployment insurance for about 2 million persons**, who at present are without this provision, without counting the large number of trade unionists in other trades, for whom one-sixth of their unemployment benefit will be paid.

The period of unemployment for which benefit will be given does not start until 6 days have elapsed, and it closes after another 15 weeks. Thus not all these days of lost time have to be provided for. The actuaries conclude that 71 per cent. of the average unemployment alone will be entitled to benefit. Thus it is anticipated that on an average each insured person in the building trades will receive benefit for 23 days, and in the engineering trades for 14.4 days.

the Scheme.

in respect of each man insured will be made up as follows:—

| | Per annum. |
|---------------------------------------|------------|
| | s. d. |
| Average contribution of Workman | 9 2 |
| Average contribution of Employer | 7 6 |
| Average contribution of State | 5 6½ |
| | 22 2½ |
| Expenses of Administration | 2 2½ |

Available for Benefits 20 0

The estimated margin or reserve per annum is shown below:—

| Per annum. | Per Member | 2,421,000 Members. |
|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| | £ s. d. | £ |
| Average Contribution.. | 1 0 0 | 2,421,000 |
| Average Benefits..... | 0 18 3 | 2,209,163 |
| Aver. Margin or Reserve | 0 1 9 | 211,837 |

The total cost to the State of unemployment insurance is estimated for 1912-13 at £732,000; 1913-14, £767,000; 1914-15, £802,000.

Benefits in the Insured Trades.

The scheme embodied in Part II. of the National Insurance Bill has two main objects:—

(A) **Compulsory insurance against unemployment in certain selected trades.**

(B) **Encouragement of voluntary insurance against unemployment in all trades.**

Compulsory Insurance applies to the following trades: Building, construction of works, shipbuilding, mechanical engineering, and construction of vehicles.

All workmen in these trades over 18 years old, excluding foremen, clerks, and established employés of the Crown, skilled or unskilled, organised or unorganised, will be compulsorily insured.

The **compulsory contributions** for Unemployment Insurance in respect of each man employed will be:—

By the employer 2½d .. per week on less period of employment.

By the workman 2½ .. per week.

By the S.ate 1½ .. " "

Total 6½ .. " "

Each workman will be provided with an insurance book in which at the end of the week it will be the duty of the employer when paying wages to insert a 5d. stamp for his own and the workman's contribution. The employer will be entitled to deduct 2½d. of this from the workman's wages.

No contributions are required during unemployment.

Benefits.—After the first week of unemployment:—

In building or construc. s. d.

tion of works 6 0 per week.

In engineering, shipbuilding,

ing, or construction of

vehicles 7 0 " "

up to a maximum of 15 weeks' benefit

in any 12 months.

Not more than one week's benefit can be drawn for every five weekly contributions. But in order to prevent hard cases arising at the commencement, a workman who has worked at an insured trade before the passing of the Act may for this purpose be deemed to add 5 weekly contributions for each three months' employment in the trade before the scheme started, with a maximum of 25 contributions.

The **conditions for receipt of benefit** are:—

(1) Employment in an insured trade for at least 26 weeks;

(2) Application to a Labour Exchange and failure to obtain work either from the exchange or otherwise.

(3) That the applicant is capable of work but unable to obtain suitable employment.

This last condition will not be broken by the unemployed man's refusal to accept a job vacant because of a labour dispute, or to undertake work at a rate lower than that which he habitually earns when in employment, or at a rate lower than that current in the district in which the employment is offered.

Notwithstanding that these conditions are fulfilled, unemployment benefit will not be paid to a workman

(1) Who loses employment because of a strike or lock-out by which he is directly affected (for so long as the dispute lasts);

(2) Who has lost his job through misconduct, or who has voluntarily left it without just cause (for six weeks);

(3) Who is convicted and imprisoned without the option of a fine (for six weeks from release).

(4) Who is an inmate of a workhouse or is resident abroad.

The rates of contribution and benefit are in accordance with the actuarial report (see p. 30). But if it is found that circumstances require it, the Board of Trade has power to vary the rates within the limits of 6s. to 8s. per week, or to reduce the period below 15 weeks. More elaborate procedure is provided for larger alterations of the rates of contribution or benefit every five years.

Administration.—The Labour Exchanges will play the principal part in the machinery of administration. An unemployed workman will take his insurance book and claim benefit from the Insurance Officer at the Exchange. If he is dissatisfied with this official's decision he may appeal to a court of referees, composed of equal numbers of employers and workmen with an impartial chairman. When the officer and the court of referees agree their decision will be final; otherwise there will be a further and final appeal to an umpire appointed by the Board of Trade. In districts without Labour Exchanges special offices of the nature of sub-post-offices will be opened.

The Prevention of Unemployment.

(1) **Premiums on Regularity of Employment.**—In order to encourage employers to give regular employment, and to engage men by the year, an employer is allowed to compound for his own and an individual workman's contributions by paying 15s. in advance for the year, instead of 5d. weekly. He still retains the right to deduct 2½d. weekly from his workman's wages, but if he discharges the workman before the end of the year and engages another man in his place or re-engages the

same workman he loses the advantage of his 15s. and has to recommence weekly contributions.

(2) After membership for 500 weeks a workman at the age of 60, or 55 if he has finally ceased to follow the insured trade, may withdraw from the fund the whole of his own contributions at 2½ per cent. compound interest, less the amount he has received in benefits.

(3) In a period of trade depression an employer, who puts his men on short time instead of discharging them, will be entitled

to the remission of his own and his workmen's contributions.

(4) An employer who engages all his men through a Labour Exchange may arrange for the Exchange to carry out all his duties in respect of insurance, and in return he will be allowed to treat, for the purposes of his contributions, successive periods of employment of the same or different workmen as continuous employment. The advantage of this consists in the fact that a contribution must otherwise be paid for each period of employment whether it lasts a week or less. Corresponding arrangements are made for the workman.

Provision for Industrial Training.—Any workman who becomes repeatedly unemployed through lack of skill or knowledge may be required to attend a suitable course of technical instruction, and if he fails to do so or to profit by such instruction, this fact may be taken into account in considering what is suitable employment for him.

(B) **Encouragement of voluntary insurance.**—In the insured trades, trade unions and similar organisations which give unemployed pay may be entrusted with the administration of the unemployed benefit so far as their members are concerned.

The unemployed trade unionist will thus draw the whole of his benefit from the union, and the Board of Trade will repay to the union the amount to which he is entitled from the State fund, with the proviso that the amount of repayment shall not exceed two-thirds of the total expended by the union.

In all trades, including the insured trades, it is provided that when a trade union gives unemployed pay to its members the Board of Trade will grant a subsidy of one-sixth of the total spent up to a maximum of 12s. per member per week, and exclusive of any sum repaid to a trade union in one of the insured trades in respect of State benefits administered by it. This is quite independent financially of the unemployment insurance fund, and the money will be provided for it separately by Parliament.

Extension to other trades.—The Board of Trade has power to extend compulsory unemployment insurance to any other trade by a special order, which will have the force of law unless within 30 days an address is presented against it by either House of Parliament, subject, however, to the condition that the money required from Parliament shall not exceed one million pounds a year within three years of the making of such an order.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

The National Insurance Bill.

By SIR ALFRED MOND, BART., M.P.

The high moral courage and boldness of conception of the Liberal Government has nowhere been more strikingly manifested than by their determination to solve, by a measure of State, the well-nigh overwhelming problem of unemployment, after the Germans, in spite of their long experience of working-class insurance, had persistently hesitated to deal with it except locally and tentatively. Yet, in spite of her highly-developed system of Labour Exchanges, Germany herself furnishes proof that mere local measures are insufficient to meet this universal evil, and that however heavy the burden of State insurance may be, it is the one method that offers some chance of a comparatively effective remedy. It may be at once admitted that it would be Utopian to hope for a complete remedy of an evil due to so many divergent and constant causes, although fortunately we have just ground for our confidence that it can be very considerably reduced and deprived of its worst features.

The initiative taken by the present Government, and more particularly by Mr. Sydney Buxton and the Board of Trade, in dealing with this problem as a question for the State and not for municipalities has once more given this country the lead in social reform, which passed to Germany when that Empire introduced compulsory working-class insurance, the idea of which originated two cen-

turies ago in the "Pension Office" project of Daniel Defoe, and was further developed in the efforts made in the House of Commons and outside at the end of the 18th century.

Although our immediate subject is industrial unemployment, it should be remembered that unemployment, or perhaps more correctly want of work, is in reality a world-wide phenomenon, and by no means confined to industrial countries nor due exclusively to industrial conditions. Want of work can exist in an agricultural community such as India, where there is no such thing as an employer in our sense of the word. Yet there at times millions of people are out of work and on the verge of starvation. As a matter of fact, an industrial country like our own is better off than a purely agricultural country in which famine follows a failure of the crops. In an industrial community it is possible to exchange manufactures for food stuffs. Agricultural countries are indeed the first to suffer from one of the greatest of the general causes of unemployment, namely, poor harvests.

The Causes of Unemployment.

In general, the causes of unemployment may be summed up as follows:—

(1) **Cyclical variations** in trade, due to such incalculable contingencies as the goodness or badness of the harvest. (2) **Financial crises**, disturbing and curtailing the credit of the world,

and consequently curtailing demand and production. (3) **Seasonal interruptions of labour**, as in the building trade. (4) **Changes in the character of industry**, such, for instance, as the substitution of motor for horse traction, extension of the use of machinery (which although increasing employment in the long run causes temporary displacement of large numbers of workmen), and the removal of industries from one district to another, coupled with unwillingness or inability on the part of workmen to move from districts the industries of which are declining or dead. (5) **The rigidity of wage conditions** maintained by trade unions, which sometimes prevents an employer from obtaining orders in times of depression owing to his inability to make any new bargain with his men for a particular piece of work. (6) **Drunkenness**, unquestionably a large factor in creating the unemployment. (7) **The cessation or reduction of British investments abroad**,* which create a demand for British products

*The last-named cause of unemployment is not operative at this moment, being like some of the other causes, only intermittently active. The unemployment that followed the close of the South African War, when the increased demand for war material and the withdrawal of labour through increased recruiting had ceased, was unquestionably due to a considerable extent to the large amount of capital absorbed in war loans and military expenditure, and consequently not available for foreign investment.

The Incidence of Unemployment.

The classes that suffer from unemployment may be roughly divided, thus: (1) Those who want work, are capable of working, but cannot obtain employment owing to the demand for goods being less than the supply. (2) Those who want work but are incapable or only partially capable owing to some physical, moral, or mental deficiency, which prevents them from being fully-effective workers. (3) Those who do not want regular employment. Many of these are not inefficient either as workmen, or morally, mentally, or physically, but belong however to a class to whom regular employment in the same place for any length of time is constitutionally unpleasant. Finally, there remain (4) **the unemployable**, who may have fallen into that category from physical incapacity or from some defect of character which makes them undesirable and inefficient workers; and (5) the "work-shy."

Unfortunately, thus far no country has provided statistics showing what proportion of the whole body of the unemployed falls under these different heads, nor have we any adequate figures to show how long individual workmen are unemployed. If the unemployment did not extend to more than a short period, during which men could maintain themselves and their families without hardship, the problem would be rather how to encourage such a holiday by means of private or public assistance. As a matter of fact

by developing new countries and increasing their purchasing power. Sir Edgar Speyer, Mr George Paish, and others have proved statistically that the growth of our exports of manufactures are in almost immediate connection with the increase of our investments abroad.

In addition to the foregoing, there remains the question of the influence of the **growth of population** on the increase of unemployment, a question unfortunately as obscure as it is important. The most extraordinary phenomenon of the 19th century has, perhaps, been the way in which the population of the world has grown to meet the demand for labour. Industries create their own population. From this standpoint industries of luxury and fashion are economically bad, owing to their fluctuating character, and the fact that they are the first to be depressed by unfavourable economic conditions, with the result that they frequently throw upon the community the task of providing for a large unemployed population. A general diffusion of wealth creating a steady demand for staple commodities is more likely to produce an equal level of employment than the concentration of wealth in few hands, where it tends to be spent capriciously, and can be diverted at any moment at the will of the owner.

the idea of giving a holiday to good workmen, at the expense of the employer, has been found in the case of one of my own firms to be to the advantage of the employer as well as of the employed. It is the kind of unemployment which cannot be regarded as holiday that is the evil to be contended with. The skilled workman is a valuable economic factor, and to allow him, through unemployment, to become incapable of the work for which he has been trained is a great loss to the community.

Such statistics of a more detailed kind as we possess in this country, as, for instance, those issued by the Amalgamated Engineers, the Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners, and the London Compositors, tend to show that in a bad year the relatively inefficient and the older workmen are the first to lose their job, and that, on the whole, while the best workmen are probably losing no time at all, there are a considerable number of less efficient or less desirable workers frequently unemployed.

The common assumption that the amount of unemployment among unskilled workers is much higher than among the skilled has, apparently, no statistical foundation. Taking into account the large amount of unskilled labour engaged in agriculture, in transport, and in industrial occupations of an exceptionally permanent character, together with a considerable section of

that large class, domestic servants, there would seem to be less unemployment throughout the whole country than would be assumed from the Board of Trade statistics, and particularly less than the exceptionally high proportions given in the last few years owing to the great depression

in the shipbuilding industry. Indeed, Professor Bowley estimates that 200,000 or fewer able-bodied adult males are out of work for non-seasonal causes one year with another, this number fluctuating between 100,000 in the best year to 300,000 in the worst.

Proposed Remedies for Unemployment.

Among the remedies for unemployment so far as it affects those who want work—who can work, but cannot obtain employment—I am convinced that the National Insurance Bill now before the House of Commons will prove the most effective. The Government deserve the cordial congratulations of reformers on having made a start with that Bill, in view of the very discouraging results achieved by other countries in their attempts to deal with the problem on a narrower local basis. Up to the present the skilled trades have, through their trade unions, really relieved the State of a heavy burden, by providing their own insurance against unemployment, and have rendered good service to the community by meeting the whole wave of industrial depression so far as their members are concerned. If the whole labouring population of the country were organised in a similar way a great part of the problem of unemployment would be solved. But it is not fair to put the whole economic burden of depression on the working classes. Employers should also take their fair share, in keeping up the reserve of labour. It would, however, be unreasonable to throw upon workers and employers alone the whole charge of economic depression, and consequently the proposal to divide the burden between them and the State, as is done in the National Insurance Bill, seems the most equitable solution of the problem.

Among the other remedies, or palliatives for unemployment are relief works. But if we have recourse to these in an emergency, only useful work should be done, and people should be transported to the point where it is required, even if it were to the very outskirts of the country. We have the example of India to show us what can be done in this direction. The diminution of child labour and the reduction of hours have also been advocated as remedies, but the former does not promise to have any very immediate effect on employment, though it would have a large effect in the future, since by diminishing child labour the next generation could be raised to a level at which the unemployable ought practically to disappear. From personal experience the reduction of hours seems to me to be really compensated for to such a large extent by enhanced efficiency as to provide very little increased employment. Emigration is now one of the safety valves for an

overgrown population, such as famine provided formerly, but emigration will only take from us those capable workers whom we can ill afford to lose, as the Colonies have no room for ineffectives, who, moreover, would die of starvation in the rough conditions of those new countries. Labour colonies are more useful, in spite of the attacks made upon them as commercial failures. As a matter of fact they should be regarded simply as social hospitals for the reclamation and training of human beings, thus rendering them fit for an independent economic existence. Those social hospitals ought to be increased in number, and to be regarded in a more rational way, when they would certainly do a great deal of good.

There remains the most difficult section of the unemployable, namely, the "Work-shy." The only way of dealing with these is a somewhat violent one. They must be made to work, or be allowed to suffer the natural consequence of not doing so. It is not necessary to go back to the stocks and flogging on the village green, but we might adopt the labour detention colonies established by the Germans, which have proved fairly successful. There the "work-shy" would be given work to do in which they could take an interest, and which would be of a nature to help them to economic independence. The experiment would justify itself even if it only yielded, as in Germany, some 25 per cent. permanently reclaimed. Fortunately there is reason to believe that the "work-shy" population is not a very large one, although it makes a considerable show in the streets, which it fills at certain seasons after the fashion of a stage army.

When, by the joint efforts of the Labour Exchanges and the special administration of the unemployment insurance, we are enabled to place the unemployed in their true categories, the task before us will year by year become more manageable, with the result that every deserving employé can confidently reckon upon adequate relief, while effective pressure, educational and otherwise, can be brought to bear upon those who need it. But a beginning must be made, and without delay, and none could be more encouraging for the working classes of the United Kingdom than that which has been submitted to the country, after full and careful consideration, by the present Liberal Government.

ALFRED MOND.

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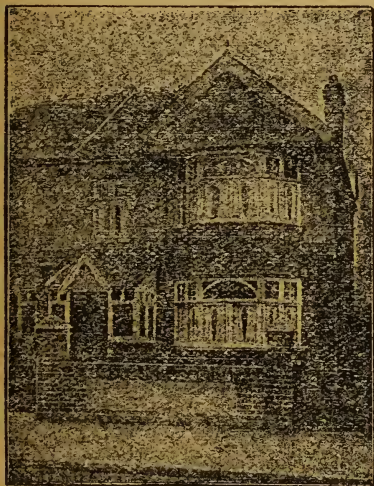
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SECTION II.—HOME RULE.

HOME Rule, since under Isaac Butt, in 1870, it took the place of Repeal of the Union as the Irish Nationalist demand, has never meant Separation. It means the establishment of a subordinate legislature in Dublin to look after purely Irish affairs, while the Imperial Parliament is to continue to exercise full control over Imperial affairs.

Gladstone's Home Rule Bills of 1886 and 1893 established a legislature of two houses in Ireland; both houses were (in the latter Bill, at least) to be elected and differences between them were to be settled by joint sessions. The Lord Lieutenant, acting on the advice of an executive committee of the Privy Council of Ireland, was to give or withhold the assent of the British Sovereign to Bills passed by the two houses, "subject, nevertheless, to any instructions given by her Majesty in respect of such Bills."

The powers of the Irish Parliament were strictly limited.

It was forbidden to make laws touching the Crown, or a Regency, or the making of peace or war, or the army and navy, or the defence of the realm, or treaties or relations with foreign States, or titles of honour, treason, or naturalisation, or coinage, or weights and measures, or trade with any place outside Ireland, or light-houses, or trade-marks, or merchandise marks, or copyright. All these matters were to be left in the hands of the Imperial Parliament.

Thus Home Rule not only does not mean Separation: it does not even mean Repeal of the Union. It means simply an extension of local government in accordance with Irish national sentiment.

Besides the above prohibitions safeguarding Imperial supremacy, Gladstone's Home Rule Bills contained other provisions safeguarding the rights of the Protestant minority.

The Irish Parliament was forbidden to make any law respecting the establishment or endowment of religion, or imposing any

disability, or conferring any privilege, on account of religious belief. Provisions like these were introduced, of course, not because an Irish Parliament was likely to pass such laws, but in order to calm the fears of the minority. The same may be said of the clause forbidding the making of any law "whereby any person may be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, or may be denied the equal protection of the laws, or whereby private property may be taken without just compensation." The rights of existing corporations were also declared immune from Irish Parliamentary interference, and Irish sea fisheries were to be left open to the inhabitants of the United Kingdom.

Other clauses of the Gladstone Bills dealt with the police and the judges. In the '93 Bill it was provided that the Royal Irish Constabulary and the Dublin Metropolitan Police should be gradually reduced and cease to exist. No new appointments were to be made. While the forces lasted they were to be subject to Imperial control and paid and pensioned out of the Imperial Exchequer, which was to recover the greater part of the expenditure from Irish funds. Meanwhile the Irish authorities might set about the creation of their own police force.

Judges and civil servants as a whole were to have the same status in regard to the Irish Government as they at present enjoy in respect to the Imperial Government. Judges were not to be removable except in pursuance of an address from both houses of the Irish legislature; and two of the judges of the Supreme Court were to be Exchequer judges, whose salaries were to be paid from the Imperial Exchequer. For six years after the passing of the Act, moreover, the appointment of a judge of the Supreme Court or other superior courts in Ireland (other than one of the Exchequer judges) was to be made "in pursuance of a warrant from Her Majesty countersigned as heretofore."

Mr. Gladstone's Finance Proposals.

Probably, owing to the altered circumstances of the last 18 years, the financial proposals of the next Home Rule Bill will be widely different from those in Gladstone's measures. But the Gladstonian proposals are worth remembering on account of their strict "Unionism." Under the Gladstonian Bill of 1893, the Imperial Parliament was still to impose customs and excise, and the customs were to be collected by Imperial officials. Thus, the Irish Parliament had no power to impose a tariff. The Irish Parliament, on the other hand, was to have powers of direct taxation, and, apart from the customs, all the public revenues of the country were to be paid into an Irish Exchequer and to form an Irish Consolidated Fund. The Irish customs

(amounting to between £2,000,000 and £3,000,000 a year) were to be paid into the Imperial Exchequer as the greater part of Ireland's contribution to Imperial liabilities and expenditure. In the Bill of 1886, Ireland's Imperial contribution was definitely fixed as one-fifteenth of the whole. Financial relations were to be revised in due time.

It will be seen that Home Rule, while conferring a great amount of liberty on the Irish people, gives them nothing resembling the unfettered colonial liberty already enjoyed by Canada, South Africa, and Australia. It leaves the United Kingdom united as before, and no more destroys "the integrity of the Empire" than the concession of local government to County Down destroys it.

THE CASE FOR HOME RULE.

IF the great majority of the people belonging to any nation definitely and persistently put forward a demand for certain rights possessed by all free countries, there is a "prima facie" case in favour of their obtaining their demand. The right of Ireland to Home Rule, then, may be taken for granted until the opponents of Home Rule have shown that the Irish nation differs from all other free nations in being more criminally-inclined, or more imbecile. Honest Unionists cannot deny that Ireland is freer from crime than almost any other country in Europe, and Irishmen have proved their intellectual abilities in every field.

The refusal of Home Rule becomes all the more ridiculous when we remember that the Union between Great Britain and Ireland has never pretended to be anything more than a Union in name. The British Parliament does not pass the same laws for England and for Ireland. It disestablished the Anglican Church in Ireland forty years ago: the Anglican Church remains established in England yet. It has decreed the abolition of landlordism in Ireland: landlordism has not been given notice to quit in England yet. Irish needs are so different from English needs in every department—agricultural, industrial, educational, ecclesiastical, and social—that the same Acts of Parliament seldom suit both. We find the Irish Unionists, for instance, demanding that the Insurance Bill shall not be applied to Ireland, not because it is a bad Bill, but because Ireland is a country economically distinct from England. If different Acts of Parliament have to be passed for England and Ireland, however, why should the two countries not have different Parliaments to pass their legislation, so that each country may get without unnecessary obstruction what it wishes and needs?

The Evil Results of the Union.

One of the worst results of the Union has been that Ireland, not having a Parliament of her own in which to pass the laws she required, and not being able to convince the British Parliament that she seriously did require them until she was exasperated to the point of revolution, has been driven again and again into revolution in order to obtain what would have been won from a native Parliament by constitutional agitation. Catholic emancipation, tithe commutation, the Land Acts, and Church Disestablishment were all refused again and again to Irish constitutional argument, only to be conceded in the end to Irish violence.

But this is not the greatest wrong the Union has done Ireland. The chief evil of the Union was that, just when Irishmen of all creeds were coming closer together, and just when the

nation was beginning to learn to act through its Parliament in the spirit of self-reliance and self-respect, Pitt and Castlereagh revived the old sectarian bitternesses by playing off the creeds against each other, and crippled the national self-respect and self-reliance by destroying the Parliament which stood for these essential virtues. Even industrial success is ultimately based on some moral quality: if you destroy self-reliance, you make industrial success impossible.

If the Union had never taken place, it seems likely to judge by the progress made in pre-Union years that Ireland would by this time have taken a high place in industrial and agricultural prosperity among the small nations.

Home Rule and Prosperity

"But Ireland has at last begun to prosper under the Union," say the Unionists; "why interfere now that the tide has turned?" There is a great deal of nonsense being talked about Irish prosperity. Unionists, who talk about Irish prosperity in one breath, in the next breath give Irish "bankruptcy" as a reason why Ireland cannot afford Home Rule. The truth is that, thanks to the persistent efforts of political, educational and industrial nationalists, and, not least, to the work of the Land League and its successors, the tide of Irish prosperity has turned at last. Ireland is slowly increasing in prosperity, but nothing but a native Parliament, fostering native energy, native intellect, native self-reliance, can make this rate of progress satisfactory.

As for Ireland's not being able to afford Home Rule, what she cannot afford is alien rule. Lord MacDonnell, ex-Under-Secretary at Dublin Castle, recently declared that the system under which Ireland is at present governed, "applied to any of your self-governing Colonies, would drive them to rebellion in a year." Ireland pays more than £10,000,000 a year for this wretched system which she does not want. This is a far greater sum than that upon which Norway, Greece, Switzerland, Denmark, and various other free peoples support, not only self-government, but national armies.

Ireland can certainly afford Home Rule. Home Rule, moreover, will enrich north-east Ulster by freeing its mind from the nightmare of sectarianism: it will enrich all Ireland, by liberating its energies from mere politics, and sending them along new channels of social and educational reform and industrial and agricultural improvement. Nor is this all. When Ireland has Home Rule (and Home Rule for Scotland and Wales seems likely to follow), the English Parliament will at last have time to consider the needs of England—a much-needed innovation.

IRISH LAND: FACTS AND FIGURES.

The Price Paid to Irish Landlords.

Irish land legislation on a serious scale may be said to have begun with **Mr. Gladstone's Land Act** of 1881, which gave the tenant the right to have his rent fixed, not by his landlord, but by a judicial land commission, the rents so assessed being subject to revision every 15 years. The 1881 Act also gave the tenant fixity of tenure so long as he paid his rent, and the right to sell his interest in his holding on leaving it.

How exorbitant Irish rents must have been before 1881 may be guessed from the fact that the total rental of the 377,400 tenants who have made one appearance before the Land Commission to have their rents fixed have had an aggregate rental of £7,452,129 reduced to £5,908,090, or by 20·7 per cent. The 139,094 tenants who, at the end of 15 years, entered the courts for a second revision of their rents obtained on an average a still further reduction of 19·5 per cent. on the rents already fixed by the Commission. Those are the figures down till March 31st, 1911.

Even in the Act of 1881 a clause was inserted which permitted the State to lend money to tenants who wished to purchase their estates, and men of all parties gradually came to realise that occupying ownership alone would give Ireland rest from agrarian turmoil and wasteful litigation.

The **Ashbourne Act** of 1885 advanced £5,000,000 to tenants to whom landlords were willing to sell, and another £5,000,000 loan was advanced in 1888. Then in 1891 and 1896 there were further Acts sanctioning further loans. The results of all these Acts in aid of land purchase are summed up in the current Report of the Irish Land Commission:—

| | No. of Advances. | Amount issued. |
|--|------------------|----------------|
| Act of 1881, Cash Advances | 731 | £ 240,801 |
| Acts of 1885, 1888, Cash Advances | 25,367 | 9,992,536 |
| Acts of 1891, 1896, Advances in G.L. Stock | 46,829 | 13,145,817 |
| Total | 72,927 | 23,379,154 |

In the **Wyndham Act** of 1903 it was first recognised as a desirable thing that the Irish soil as a whole should be gradually transferred from the ownership of the landlords to that of the tenants. It was estimated that a loan of £100,000,000 would be required, raised by 2½ per cent. Guaranteed Land Stock, issued at the rate of £5,000,000 a year. The landlords were to be paid, not in variable stock, but in solid cash, however, and as land stock, like Consols, has fallen steadily since that time, this has proved a highly expensive way of raising the

money. Losses on flotation had to be borne largely out of the Irish rates, and the burden threatened to become so ruinous that Mr. Birrell stepped in with an amending Act in 1909, which enacted, among other things, that such loss as is incurred in raising the purchase money should be borne, first, by the Ireland Development Grant, and, when that was exhausted, by the Imperial Exchequer.

Mr. Birrell introduced other changes into the Wyndham scheme. In the case of future purchase agreements, the landlord is to be paid in 3 per cent. stock, not in cash. The tenant's annuity, by which the purchase money is repaid to the Exchequer, is raised from 3¼ to 3½ per cent., but the period for the complete redemption of the loan is reduced from 68½ to 65½ years. Then the bonus of £12,000,000 (which is supposed to be an Imperial gift to the landlords, bridging over the gulf between what they are willing to take and what the tenants are willing to pay, and which is duly charged to "Irish expenditure" in the financial white papers) is to be distributed on a new principle, according to which the landlord will receive a higher bonus the lower the price at which he sells.

Up till the 31st of March, 1911, advances amounting to **£41,301,213** had already been made under the Wyndham and Birrell Acts, and yet only about 6,000,000 acres, or a third of the agricultural land of Ireland, have passed into the possession of the tenant-farmers between 1881 and the present day. Purchase agreements have been made at a much faster rate than that at which purchases can be arranged for by the authorities. Since 1903 222,733 purchase agreements, involving £74,684,255, have been lodged with the Estates Commissioners, and other agreements are pending. During the year ending 31st March last, £7,190,483 was advanced for land purchase. It is estimated that, by the time land purchase operations have been completed, the Irish landlords will have been paid in all **£208,000,000**.

Immediately an estate has been sold—estates or parts of estates, not single holdings, are the units of agreement—the tenant begins to repay annual instalments of the purchase money to the Government, instead of paying interest to a landlord, and these annual instalments are estimated to be from 15 to 20 per cent. lower than "second-term" rents. On the 1st July last, out of about £2,000,000 due as tenants' annual repayments, only £13,547 was in arrears. These figures give the best answer to those who suggest that the Irish farmer is not to be trusted as a State debtor.

THE FINANCE OF HOME RULE.

How Irish Revenue is Computed.

There are many reasons proffered by Unionists for not granting Home Rule to Ireland, but the latest and most potent argument is the financial one.

The following table summarises the Treasury figures taken from the Returns of Revenue and Expenditure (England, Scotland, and Ireland), H.C. Nos. 233 and 234 of 1910, and Nos. 220 and 221 of 1911.

| Year. | Revenue collected in Ireland. | Adjustment. | Estimated True Revenue. |
|---------|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1906-7 | .. 11,399,000 | -1,909,000 | 9,490,000 |
| 1907-8 | .. 11,478,000 | -1,857,000 | 9,621,000 |
| 1908-9 | .. 11,285,000 | -2,035,000 | 9,250,000 |
| 1909-10 | .. 9,846,000 | -1,491,000 | 8,555,000 |
| 1910-11 | .. 13,519,500 | -1,854,000 | 11,665,500 |

From the above table there appears in the first column the actual amount of revenue collected in Ireland in the respective financial years. That amount, of course, does not represent the amount of taxation paid by the Irish people, so the Treasury have made the corrections in the form of deductions, appearing in the second column. About seven-tenths of Irish revenue is derived from indirect taxation on such goods as whisky, beer, tobacco, sugar, tea, &c. The consumer pays the tax on such articles, and although the duty may be payable by the manufacturer or importer in the first instance, the article may be largely consumed outside the country, and the duty is therefore not paid by the Irish people. Some correction is obviously necessary, and the difference between the first and second columns above, according to the Treasury, gives the true revenue paid by the people of Ireland.

The accuracy of these figures has been challenged by highly competent authorities, and will undoubtedly be investigated by the Committee now sitting. In order to have a fairly accurate account, it would be necessary to have a complete record of the

exports and imports of dutiable goods. That is not obtainable except in some degree in regard to whisky, the movement of which out of and into Ireland is recorded by means of the Excise and Customs permit system. As regards other goods the Treasury has had to resort to mere guesswork, as in the case of tea, sugar, and tobacco, where it is stated in the return that the adjustment is based on "proportions ascertained by enquiries as to quantities interchanged between Great Britain and Ireland in 1903-4."

When the figures as to tea are considered the disparity between the Treasury return and the figures of exports and imports of that commodity issued by the Agricultural Department, is very noticeable. During the financial year ending 31st March, 1910, the amount of *tea duty* collected in Ireland was £302,000. To this figure the Treasury adds £240,000 in respect of tea consumed in Ireland, but the duty on which has been paid elsewhere. This makes a total of £542,000 representing the duty on 28,016,000 pounds of tea at 5d. per pound. The figures of the Department of Agriculture for 1909 show that in that year 34,334,832 pounds of tea were imported into Ireland, of which 364,672 pounds were re-exported, leaving 33,970,160 pounds to be consumed in Ireland. The duty on this quantity would be £707,711, or £165,711 in excess of the Treasury estimate. The fact that the Treasury figures are for the financial year ending 31st March, 1910, and those of the Agricultural Department are for the year 1909, probably does not make any material difference.

Similar comment may be made as to the figures relating to *sugar and tobacco*.

It is clear that the Treasury method of computing Irish Revenue does not conform to the view expressed by Mr. Gladstone, who, in introducing the Home Rule Bill in 1886, laid down that "it would be equitable and just, considering the past, to give credit to Ireland for the total amount of her revenue as collected." Also as regards direct taxation, such as income-tax and stamp duties, it is quite certain that the full credit is not given to Ireland.

Irish Revenue and Expenditure.

The comparison of Irish expenditure and revenue contributed by Ireland for the years 1909-10 and 1910-11 is shown by the following figures:—

| | 1909-10. | 1910-11. |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Total Revenue Contributed by Irel'd | 8,355,000 | + 11,665,500 |
| Local Expenditure in Ireland | 10,712,500 | + 11,344,500 |
| | - £2,357,500 | + 321,000 |

The accounts for the years 1909-10 and 1910-11 are complicated owing to the action of the House of Lords on re-

jecting the Budget, and the consequent postponement of the collection of certain taxes. The former year shows a deficit and the latter a surplus. If the two years are averaged, the figures would work out as follows:—

| | |
|----------------------------------|------------|
| | £ |
| Revenue | 10,010,250 |
| Expenditure (1910-11) | 11,344,500 |
| Deficit paid out of U.K. Revenue | £1,334,250 |

If, however, as was suggested by Mr. Gladstone, the Irish revenue is taken to be the amount collected in Ireland, as shown in the above table, there would, of course, be an ample balance to its credit. Those who desire to

master thoroughly the intricate subject of the financial relations between Great Britain and Ireland should read carefully the Report of the Royal Commission which sat in 1894 (C-8262). The Commissioners agreed, among other things, on the following questions:—

(1) That the Act of Union imposed upon Ireland a burden which, as events showed, she was unable to bear.

(2) That the increase of taxation laid upon Ireland between 1853 and 1860 was not justified by the then existing circumstances.

(3) That whilst the actual tax revenue of Ireland is about one-eleventh of that of Great Britain, the relative taxable capacity of Ireland is very much smaller, and is not estimated by any of us as exceeding one-twentieth.

On this basis it was estimated that in that year (1893-94) Ireland contributed to the Exchequer Revenue a sum amounting to about two and three-quarter millions in excess of that which she would contribute if the Revenue derived from her were in proportion to her relative taxable capacity. The Commissioners say that this excess would be reduced by taking into account as a set-off the special expenditure out of Imperial Revenue in aid of local burdens in Ireland, such as the grants towards arterial

drainage and other public work. But with all deductions it is beyond question that Ireland has been enormously overtaxed in the past, and that fact will have to be borne in mind when considering any financial arrangement under Home Rule.

But besides the unreliability of the adjustments compiled by the Treasury, another factor contributing to show an adverse balance against Ireland is the method of book-keeping adopted as regards the classification of local and Imperial expenditure. Take, for example, the **Royal Irish Constabulary**, which cost £1,371,000 in 1910-11. This is entered as Irish expenditure, although it is admittedly forced on Ireland by the Imperial Government. Sir Robert Peel, who established the force, regarded its expense as an Imperial charge, and the late Sir E. W. Hamilton, the distinguished Treasury expert, considered that a portion of the charge should be reckoned as an Imperial charge. Mr. A. W. Samuels, K.C., a leading member of the Unionist Party, also adopts the same view, not only in regard to the Constabulary, but also as regards other items such as the "collection of revenue," £298,000 in 1910-11, and the Post-office £1,404,500 in 1910-11.

Whether Ireland is to be regarded as solvent or not depends so much on the system of book-keeping adopted.

The Financial Proposals of 1886 and 1893.

It remains to consider the various suggestions as to what the financial proposals of the Home Rule Bill may be, and what will be the power of the Irish Parliament in matters of taxation. The proposals of the Home Rule Bills of 1886 and 1893 may be set out briefly.

Under the former, duties of Customs and Excise were left entirely under the control of the Imperial Parliament, but other taxes could be levied by the Irish Parliament for the public service of Ireland. Moneys collected in Ireland as Customs and Excise were to be carried to a separate account, and applied to the payment of the annual contributions and sinking fund, any balance to be paid over to the Irish Government. The Revenue of the Irish Government was charged with any part of the contributions which the Customs and Excise might be insufficient to meet. Ireland was to contribute one-fifteenth of the expenditure of the National Debt, Army, Navy, and Imperial Civil Expenditure as it stood in 1886. It had also to pay a fixed annual sum towards the Constabulary, and the force was to continue subject to the control of the Lord-Lieutenant. These annual contributions were not to be increased for 30 years, but might be reduced in the event of a reduction of the total Imperial expenditure.

In the 1893 Bill the "true" revenue in Ireland was to be determined by a Joint Committee of the Treasury and the Irish Government. Ireland's contribution to Imperial expenditure was to be one-third of

her true revenue based on the receipts actually derived from the taxes and Crown Lands in Ireland. The remaining two-thirds should be credited to Ireland, and also her miscellaneous receipts and any surplus arising from her postal service. Ireland, out of the Revenue thus credited and new taxes which the Irish Parliament had power to impose, had to pay two-thirds of the cost of the Royal Irish Constabulary, and of the Dublin police force, all her Civil Government charges, and meet any deficit on her postal services. For a period of six years the changes in the rates of Inland Revenue duties and postal revenue in Ireland, as well as of the Customs revenue, should continue to rest with the Imperial Parliament, together with their collection. The proceeds of any special war tax collected in or contributed by Ireland should go to the Imperial Exchequer.

A complete revision of the arrangements should take place at the end of six years. At the end of that time, the collection of the whole of the Inland Revenue should be transferred to the Irish Government, and the Irish Legislature should impose the stamp duties, income-tax, and Excise licences.

How far the coming Home Rule Bill will follow its predecessors is impossible to say. It is submitted, however, that the financial scheme of the Bill should be as broad and generous as possible.

THE CASE FOR HOME RULE FOR SCOTLAND.

By THE LATE DR. A. ROLLAND RAINY, M.P.

The National Committee was formed in the month of June last year by a large number of Scottish Members of Parliament who had become convinced that Scotland's most urgent need was that she should be able to overtake her own business by means of a governing body in Scotland. That this should be is no new proposition. It has persisted in some form or another ever since the Union of the Crowns in 1603 and the Parliamentary Union in 1707. Up to a certain date the Parliamentary Union worked if not well at least not inadequately. England knew little and cared less about Scotland, and therefore, in the main, the government of Scotland was left in the hands of her Parliamentary representatives, except on one or two occasions when the interests of England were said to be so important that they must override Scottish opinion, even when unanimously, or almost unanimously, expressed by her representatives. These occasions, though not unimportant, were, however, few and far between till we came to the last decade of the last century. What brought matters to a head was the fact that, when a Conservative Government was in power and a Scottish Lord Advocate had charge of Government business, an overwhelming Liberal representation was returned from Scotland. It is obvious that, in such conditions, the Lord Advocate of the day would be impotent unless he invoked the aid of English members of Parliament to remain in the House and vote down Scottish opinion; what then was a new conception as to the government of Scotland became an established custom. It really became an accomplished fact when the late Lord Robertson, then Mr. J. P. B. Robertson, was Lord Advocate of Scotland. To counteract this grotesque situation, the Imperial Parliament, under various inspirations, took action.

In the first place a secretariat of Scotland was set up with an office chargeable only through the Secretary of State to Parliament. To avoid expense to those who had business which was in the main local, Private Bills Commissioners were appointed to hear causes and parties concerned in Scotland, whose recommendations in the main were held to be binding on Parliament, unless very grave objections were taken to them. In addition to these, the system of Grand Committees was set up, the original intent of which was that Scottish members, sitting by themselves in Grand Committee, should consider such Bills as concerned Scotland, and should, under the above conditions—that is, no grave objection being taken—decide the Scottish legislation.

These three attempts to solve the

question have broken down. In the first place, the Scottish Office, except under extraordinarily virile management by the Secretary for Scotland, being situated in London, has fallen into a secondary place, and merely acts, however good its intentions, as a subordinate branch of the Government offices. It must be admitted, however, that certain departments of the office have a somewhat summary jurisdiction over Scottish affairs. It is, however, in no sense subservient to the opinion of Scottish representatives as the Cabinet is to the opinion of members of the House of Commons. In the second place, the working of the private-bill-legislation proposition has proved inadequate, because at best those concerned in promoting Bills only meet with a body possessed of delegated powers who are in no way necessarily typical of Scottish opinion, and who have to shape their propositions with some respect to the views of the Imperial Parliament as a whole. In the third place, the Scottish Grand Committee has not been left in sole charge of its own business. English members in a certain proportion have been added to its numbers, and the result has been to thwart the opinion of Scotland by unduly modifying Scottish Bills to accommodate them so far to English opinion.

While all this was being worked out, there was and has been all along a growing sense of dissatisfaction in Scotland. A Home Rule movement has been vigorously pushed, and in connection with this Scotland should not forget what she owes to Mr. Waddie and those who worked with him in the years that are past. But the members of the National Committee have had experience of how Scottish affairs have been dealt with not only under a Conservative régime but also under a Government which is Liberal, and has been in power since 1906, and they are convinced that, to put it at the lowest, and without imputing any unworthy motives to their English fellow-members in the House of Commons, the business of Scotland cannot be properly dealt with otherwise than by a Scottish Parliament sitting in Scotland.

It should be noticed that, in claiming a partial modification of the Union of the English and Scottish Parliaments, what is proposed gives up the plenary powers of the old Scottish Parliament. Peace and war, the control of the Army and Navy, the making of foreign treaties, and so forth are left with the Imperial Parliament. What is claimed is that, within her own borders, her own duly-elected representatives shall decide her own business for herself, and that the permanent executive shall be directly under that control.

The Scottish Home Rule Bill.

The National Committee, therefore, have drawn up a Bill providing for the Parliamentary government of Scotland in Scotland, which has been introduced by the following members: Sir Henry Dalziel, Messrs. Munro Ferguson, Pirie, Watt, Cowan, Munro, Pringle, J. D. Hope, Rainy, Morton, Cathcart Wason, and Barnes.

Its chief provisions are summarised as under:—

A House of Representatives, to be called "the Scots Parliament," and to be composed of two representatives apiece (four from Dundee) of the existing Scotch parliamentary constituencies with the exception of the Universities, is to be established at Edinburgh. This Parliament must be summoned at least every year, and its duration is not to exceed five years.

It has to have power to legislate on matters of an exclusively local character, *e.g.*, the appointment and payment of executive and administrative officers, local government, public health, law, justice, police and prisons, marriage and divorce, education, railways, canals and harbours, the regulation of labour, licensing, and the established church.

It is not to have any jurisdiction in matters touching the Crown, defence, treaties, peace or war, and international relations, nor is it to make any law imposing any disability on account of religious belief, or levying customs duties.

It is to have power to levy taxes to defray its own expenditure and to pay an annual share of Imperial charges, based upon the proportion paid by Scotland in the three years preceding the establishment of Scotch Home Rule.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is to decide any questions arising out of the interpretation of the Act.

The Act is to come into force six months after receiving the Royal Assent.

It should be noted that the National Committee was constituted ad hoc for the self-government of Scotland. It gladly recognises that, in support of its policy, it can count on the overwhelming majority of Scottish representatives.

The foregoing was written by Dr. Rainy at the request of the Scottish National Committee, and was his last piece of work, having been dictated to his son on the day before his death.

SECTION III.—NATIONAL FINANCE.

1.—Six Years of Liberal Finance.

There is little doubt that one of the causes of the violent change in our political representation in 1906 was the feeling of uncertainty as to the manner in which British finance had been conducted by the previous Government, and the fear of the financial upheaval which would have resulted from the proposed fiscal changes. Equally, there is little doubt that the Liberals returned to power on the old programme of "Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform," of which Retrenchment formed a potent item, and in view of the actual increase of expenditure which has taken place, the following analysis is

presented to show where and why expenditure has risen, and how the increase has been met by taxation. It is also desirable to examine in what measure provision has been made for time of national stress by redemption of the debt. Such an analysis may assist the reader to steer a middle course between the pessimism induced by alarmist articles on the increase of national expenditure and the cheerful optimism which imagines that Dreadnoughts and pensions have been provided without anybody being a penny the worse.

Expenditure.

Attention is directed first to the expenditure, for the State is privileged to some extent to vary its revenue according to its expenditure. In the following tables the figures are given from the year 1903-4, the first year of peace after the South African War, and comprise three years of Conservative government and six years under the Liberals, though the latest year is, of course, estimated only. Although the published returns give a true statement of the national accounts the *prima facie* figures frequently do not convey the whole truth on the surface. Some adjustment is therefore necessary, and where made in the following tables its nature is explained.

The first table shows the total expenditure to be met from revenue, and the true expenditure of the year, apart from provision for debt reduction. The adjustment in this case is made by subtracting the sum earmarked for reduction of debt of any description, and adding the capital expenditure of the year under all heads. Debt reduction is clearly to the credit of the administration

of the day, whereas debts incurred and not paid should be laid to their charge.

TOTAL EXPENDITURE.

| Year. | Mct from Revenue. | Net Adjustment. | True Expenditure. |
|---------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| 1903-4 | £151,152,349 | - £105,202 | £151,047,147 |
| 1904-5 | 151,667,722 | - 1,270,827 | 150,296,895 |
| 1905-6 | 149,625,883 | - 4,909,901 | 144,715,982 |
| 1906-7 | 150,390,797 | - 7,011,192 | 143,379,605 |
| 1907-8 | 151,835,796 | - 10,510,059 | 141,319,737 |
| 1908-9 | 152,362,495 | - 9,494,813 | 142,867,562 |
| 1909-10 | 157,750,381 | - 4,556,354 | 153,194,027 |
| 1910-11 | 171,995,667 | - 8,101,622 | 163,894,045 |
| 1911-12 | 181,297,000 | - 7,570,000 | 173,727,000 |

For the purposes of comparison the years 1903-4 to 1906-7 have been increased by the local taxation grants, and the year 1903-4 reduced by £5,995,000 in respect of war expenditure.

There is thus a rise in true expenditure of roughly 30 millions since the first year of the Liberal Government, which brings the total to over 20 millions ahead of the high-level mark of their predecessors.

Expenditure on Consolidated Fund Services.

The National Debt, from the capital point of view, is reviewed in detail separately, but its cost in interest and management and a certain provision for sinking fund is a charge on the revenue of the year, classed, as regards deadweight or old war debts, &c., as National Debt Services, and as regards capital works of various kinds under their respective heads on Army, Navy, Civil, and Revenue Votes.

NATIONAL DEBT EXPENDITURE.

| Year. | For Dead Weight Debt. | For Military, Naval, &c., Works | Total. |
|---------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-------------|
| 1903-4 | £27,000,000 | £1,787,405 | £28,787,405 |
| 1904-5 | 27,000,000 | 2,071,031 | 29,071,031 |
| 1905-6 | 28,025,027 | 2,919,343 | 30,944,370 |
| 1906-7 | 28,500,000 | 3,204,362 | 31,704,362 |
| 1907-8 | 29,500,000 | 3,442,569 | 32,942,569 |
| 1908-9 | 28,000,000 | 3,550,507 | 31,550,507 |
| 1909-10 | 21,757,661 | 3,803,216 | 25,560,877 |
| 1910-11 | 24,554,004 | 3,904,487 | 28,458,487 |
| 1911-12 | 24,500,000 | 3,687,686 | 28,187,686 |

Thus the burden on the taxpayer of the National Debt, after being temporarily at a high level when revenue was available and it was desirable to get rid of blocks of Treasury Bills and Exchequer Bonds, our first resort in

time of financial emergency, has now been reduced to slightly below the sum payable after the close of the war.

Development and Road Improvement Funds appeared in the accounts for the first time last year, when the issue, including arrears, amounted to £1,362,641. The current estimate is £1,280,000.

Payments to Local Taxation Accounts, consisting largely of the produce of certain duties, have not appreciably changed, totalling:—

| | |
|------------|-----------|
| 10,951,778 | in 1903-4 |
| 11,379,652 | " 1906-7 |
| 9,445,395 | " 1909-10 |
| 9,549,000 | " 1911-12 |

Certain licences, amounting to some £1,600,000, were removed from the Imperial Revenue in 1908-9, and are now collected by the local authorities direct, accounting for the decrease in the later years.

Other Consolidated Fund Services, comprising the Civil List and other allowances to Royalty, the salaries and pensions of the Judges, and a variety of miscellaneous services charged on the Consolidated Fund by statute, have remained practically stationary, costing:—

| | | | |
|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| £1,624,431 | in 1903-4 | £1,653,555 | " 1909-10 |
| 1,679,012 | " 1906-7 | 1,707,000 | " 1911-12 |

Expenditure out of Parliamentary Votes.

The Naval and Military Accounts are complicated by the vicious system of capital or loan expenditure, which ran riot for the 10 years prior to 1906. It threatened to become the equivalent of the "extraordinary expenditure" of a number of foreign powers, but has now, after severe handling, been practically eradicated. To arrive at the true expenditure for either of these services over a series of years, it is necessary to add to the ordinary accounts sums expended under the various naval and military works Acts, and remove the sums provided for the repayment with interest of similar earlier expenditure now loading the totals.

MILITARY EXPENDITURE.

| Year. | From Votes. | Net Adjustment. | True Charge. |
|---------|-------------|-----------------|--------------|
| 1903-4 | £30,703,394 | +£2,710,037 | £33,413,431 |
| 1904-5 | 28,894,427 | + 2,414,717 | 31,309,144 |
| 1905-6 | 28,478,863 | + 266,591 | 28,745,454 |
| 1906-7 | 28,501,422 | - 520,513 | 27,980,879 |
| 1907-8 | 27,141,642 | - 814,630 | 26,327,012 |
| 1908-9 | 26,859,299 | - 910,826 | 25,948,473 |
| 1909-10 | 27,243,824 | - 982,810 | 26,261,014 |
| 1910-11 | 27,450,000 | - 1,150,695 | 26,299,305 |
| 1911-12 | 27,690,000 | - 616,500 | 27,073,500 |

In 1903-4 £5,995,000 has been abated for war charges.

It is clear from these figures that he bound in ordinary military expenditure which took place at the time of the South African war has been materially lessened. It was concealed to some extent by the system then in vogue, which now has the effect of

masking the real reduction. This applies still more to the naval expenditure shown below, which, though requiring some seven millions more in taxation, owing to the more courageous finance of the present Government, has for the first time passed the high-level mark of 1904-5.

The present taxpayers are bearing, in addition to their own naval and military charges, a portion of those incurred years ago, and by the system of those days the additional burden will continue for the next 15 or 20 years.

NAVAL EXPENDITURE.

| Year. | From Votes. | Net Adjustment. | True Charge. |
|---------|-------------|-----------------|--------------|
| 1903-4 | £35,709,477 | +£2,759,073 | £38,468,550 |
| 1904-5 | 36,859,681 | + 2,768,337 | 39,628,018 |
| 1905-6 | 33,151,841 | + 2,297,792 | 35,449,633 |
| 1906-7 | 31,472,087 | + 1,336,891 | 32,808,978 |
| 1907-8 | 31,251,156 | - 130,740 | 31,120,416 |
| 1908-9 | 32,181,309 | - 315,770 | 31,865,539 |
| 1909-10 | 35,734,015 | - 1,325,809 | 34,408,206 |
| 1910-11 | 40,386,000 | - 1,322,752 | 39,063,248 |
| 1911-12 | 44,393,000 | - 1,322,752 | 43,070,248 |

This analysis of the accounts makes it clear that the charge of extravagance in the matter of armaments, even if justifiable in the absolute, is not borne out by a comparison with the expenditure of the previous administration, for even now the total naval and military expenditure, estimated above at £70,144,000 for the current year, is less than the true charge for either of the years 1903-4 or 1904-5.

Thus the Liberal Government is not really responsible for any increase in expenditure on armaments, a statement which, in face of the present shipbuilding programme, seems paradoxical. What has really happened is that the previous Administration concealed the true magnitude of their expenditure by borrowing, the borrowed money being spent on forts, harbours, and barracks, so-called capital expenditure, which is now met from revenue. The result of the strong hand in this department of finance is not only the cessation of the system, but the cessation of the wasteful experiments which it fostered, so that the increased expenditure due to the Dreadnought programme has been met from savings in other directions of naval and military expenditure.

In giving comparative figures for **Civil Services** it is desirable to go into more detail in order that the character of the expenditure may be understood.

The term **Civil Services** is quite commonly confused with the **Civil Service**, the administrative and clerical staff of public departments, and the expenditure presumed to represent the salaries of Civil servants. Even those who remember that Civil Services include the cost of Education and Old Age Pensions do not readily call to mind the heavy charges for, say, Rates on Government Property, Prisons, the Royal Irish Constabulary, Irish Land Finance, or our foreign and colonial services. The table, by giving the expenditure under the seven classes of the estimates, affords some indication of the character of the expenditure, and shows where the principal increase has taken place. Public Education and Old Age Pensions have been shown separately from their respective classes, and the Customs and Inland Revenue Departments and the Post Office, which are added, complete the account.

EXPENDITURE ON CIVIL SERVICE

| Class. | 1903-4. | 1906-7. | Estimates, 1911-12. |
|--|------------|------------|---------------------|
| Public Works and Buildings | £2,451,430 | £2,029,469 | £3,466,896 |
| Salaries and Expenses of Civil Departments | 2,507,401 | 2,666,745 | 4,141,996 |
| Law and Justice | 3,758,886 | 3,774,011 | 4,531,859 |
| Education, Science, and Art | 413,529 | 469,142 | 777,904 |
| Public Education | 14,175,991 | 16,530,105 | 18,368,360 |
| Foreign and Colonial Services | 2,195,903 | 1,874,073 | 2,097,044 |
| Pensions and Charitable Services | 879,657 | 782,747 | 829,616 |
| Old Age Pensions | — | — | 12,415,000 |
| Miscellaneous | 303,137 | 405,872 | 684,009 |
| Total Civil Services | 26,685,934 | 29,132,764 | 47,311,534 |
| Customs, Excise, and Inland Revenue | 3,097,530 | 3,178,437 | 4,085,400 |
| Post Office | 15,193,642 | 16,552,376 | 21,082,445 |
| Total | 44,977,106 | 48,863,577 | 72,479,379 |

How the Increase is Distributed.

The details which have now been given enable the expansion in expenditure since 1903-4 to be allocated to six main causes:—

1. The increase in Education grants £4,000,000
2. Old Age Pensions £12,500,000
3. The growth of the Post Office, which, however, yields a larger profit. £6,000,000
4. The growth of expenditure by Civil Departments in classes I. to III. £3,500,000
5. The Development, &c., Fund £1,000,000
6. The cost of collection of the increased revenue .. £1,000,000

The chief saving has been the reduction of £2,500,000 in interest on the National Debt. Of the increases, £4,000,000 occurred between 1903-4 and 1907-8, but armaments were reduced by £14,000,000, bringing the total expenditure to its lowest level since the commencement of the war; the rest has taken place from 1907-8 onwards, while armaments have mounted again by £12,000,000.

The first of these increases, that on **Education**, represents expenditure which no progressive nation can afford to neglect; the second, for **Old Age Pensions**, now finds no critic who dares face a constituency; and the fifth, an experiment in the development of the resources and public communications of the kingdom, has received its justification in the administration of the **Development Commission** and the **Road Board**. The growth of the **Post Office** is simply a matter of business, for the profit is greater now than eight years ago, despite, or perhaps because of, a levelling-up of wages, while an increase of 20 millions in taxation of necessity means increased cost under item six.

The debatable increase is, in fact, practically confined to the expenditure by Civil Departments under classes I. to III. in the Estimates. The increase under these heads appears to be occasioned to the extent of one-third by Labour Exchanges, Trade Boards, Irish Land Purchase, Housing, Small Holdings, and Mines Inspection. The remainder is covered by the vague term "automatic increase."

TAXATION.

The great **Liberal Budgets** have more often been concerned with remission than imposition of taxation, the policy of retrenchment providing the means, but in either case their characteristic features have been a real desire to make the burden of taxation equitable, and an absence of tinkering, which is all to the advantage of the taxpayer. In the case of duties on commodities this latter feature is also an advantage to the trader, who is saved the adjustment of prices which is otherwise necessary from year to year.

These desirable principles of taxation have been more honoured in the breach than in the observance with *Conservative Budgets*. For instance, the tobacco duty was reduced in 1898-9 only to be reimposed in 1900-1, and then again varied in 1904-5. The Corn duties were imposed in 1902-3, only to be repealed in the succeeding year, and a reduction of income-tax after the war was followed in the next year by an increase. The Tea duty again was increased in 1904-5 only to be reduced in 1905-6, and rarely has a remission of taxation been considered sufficiently important in itself to justify an increase in another direction to facilitate the changes. In short, the Conservative plan in quiet years has been solely to balance the account by the variation of stock duties without considering the possibility of the adjustment of the burden, while in less easy times we have the unfortunate experiments in indirect taxation of corn, sugar, and coal.

The last outstanding taxation reform previous to the return to power of the present Government was *Sir William Harcourt's Reform of the Estate Duty* in 1894, which yielded £3,500,000, a change hotly resisted in its introduction, but one for which his opponents never ceased to thank him during their subsequent lease of power.

The progress of the revenue and control of the expenditure enabled taxation to be reduced in each of the first three years of the Liberal Government. Of the war taxes £1. per pound still remained on tea, and *Mr. Asquith* gave first place to a remission of half this sum. He had also examined the restriction of the coal trade, due to the export duty, and decided to give relief to industry in this direction. Owing to the moderation of the revenue estimates the year resulted in a splendid surplus, and with trade abounding, the year 1907-8 also promised well. It was now the turn of the direct taxpayer, but instead of the hackneyed £1. in the £ off the income-tax there came the reduction of 3d. off earned income, a differentiation attended by great success, and a much appreciated concession to the most stable form of income. On the estimates of the year money was not available for this reduction, but it was obtained by deepening the scale of Estate duties on estates over £160,000. Again *Mr. Asquith* was rewarded by a splendid surplus and better prospects, but the shadow of armaments was looming ahead and the cost of Old Age Pensions had to be met, so that the year 1908-9 was the last of possible remissions, but the Chancellor was able to provide for the first quarter of Old Age Pen-

sions, and remit at a cost of over £3,000,000, half the war tax of ½d. per lb. on sugar.

The Budget of 1909-10.

With the opening of the year 1909-10 we enter on a new stage of finance. The situation occasioned by the provision for Old Age pensions and the general programme of State-aided social progress had been foreseen, but added to this was the growth of the Navy, and the combined effect on the Budget was an estimated deficit of over fifteen millions.

The pressing needs when the Government took office were the overdue reduction of war taxation, and a determined attack on the top-heavy load of war debt. Until these were accomplished the forward programme could receive no attention. During the first three years, then, remissions of taxation were made on necessary articles of food, viz., tea and sugar, and on industry, viz., coal and earned income. With regard to the debt, the rein was sharply tightened on fresh capital expenditure, extra provision for reduction was made from revenue, and surpluses were also thus applied, as they had not been by their predecessors, with the result that when the strain of the pensions came five millions could be justifiably claimed from the debt provision.

The Government had now to look to the future. Pensions were already £2,000,000 more than had been expected, and two years later the removal of the Poor Law disqualification was to add another £3,000,000. The Navy increase was not half its requirements, the bulk of the expenditure on a programme being provided in the second and third financial years, and there was to be a margin for the schemes not then matured for aiding the workman to provide against adversity.

Such were the demands on the historic Budget of 1909-10; how was the burden of taxation distributed?

Compared with 1899-1900, there were added to the taxes of the poor and the general community the remains of war duties on tea and sugar, and the whole war duty on beer, spirits, and tobacco, while there was but an extra penny of income-tax on earned income and fourpence on unearned income, no large claim on other heads having been made on the relatively rich. The following table of proportions per cent. of indirect and direct taxation may be taken to show the proportion borne by these two divisions of the community, it being understood that indirect taxes fall on the general body of tax-payers and direct only on the more prosperous:—

| Year. | Indirect. | Direct. | Year. | Indirect. | Direct |
|--------|-----------|---------|--------|-----------|--------|
| 1841-2 | 73 | 27 | 1891-2 | 56 | 44 |
| 1851-2 | 67 | 33 | 1895-6 | 52 | 48 |
| 1861-2 | 62 | 38 | 1900-1 | 51 | 49 |
| 1871-2 | 61 | 39 | 1905-6 | 50 | 50 |
| 1881-2 | 60 | 40 | | | |

It will be seen that the tendency to transfer burdens from indirect to direct taxation, which is a settled policy and natural development of our finance, based on the growth of pros-

perity and organic progress of the nation, had been almost arrested under the previous Government, and the time had come for re-adjustment. The commodities selected for additional indirect taxation were the luxuries, spirits, and tobacco, while the bulk of new taxation was direct, falling on unearned and high incomes, large estates, monopoly in the shape of licences, and increases in the value of land coming as wind-falls to the owners, so that by 1910-11 the proportions had been changed as under:—

| Year. | Indirect. | Direct. |
|---------------|-----------|---------|
| 1910-11. | 43 | 57 |

Tables of actual results from the new taxes have not been published, but the Budgets of 1910-11 and 1911-12, which have shown that the taxes imposed by the Finance Bill of 1909-10 have been sufficient to meet successive increases of £10,000,000 per annum, are eloquent of success to the ordinary taxpayer.

This table did not provide for further increases under Licences, Spirits, and Land, but there is no doubt they are

being realised. The yield of £2,735 to March 31st, 1911, from the three Land Value Duties, which depend on the valuation, has not failed to draw the humour of critics. The end of the story has yet to be written; the yield in 1911-12 will be increased tenfold on the existing assessments, and a further tenfold increase to over £200,000 in 1912-13 would be a not unreasonable forecast.

ESTIMATED YIELD OF NEW TAXATION.

(000's omitted.)

| | 1909-10 | 1910-11 | 1911-12 |
|------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| Income Tax of 2d. .. | 2,700 | 3,550 | 3,720 |
| Super Tax of 6d. .. | 500 | 2,250 | 2,500 |
| Death Duties..... | 2,850 | 4,850 | 5,155 |
| Legacy and Duties .. | — | 1,870 | 2,150 |
| Liquor Licences | 2,100 | 2,100 | 2,100 |
| Stamp Duties | 450 | 1,290 | 1,290 |
| Tobacco, 4d. per oz. | 1,900 | 2,250 | 2,250 |
| Spirits, 3/9 per gall. | 800 | 800 | 800 |
| Motor-cars & Petrol .. | 600 | 635 | 635 |
| Land Taxes | 600 | 600 | 600 |
| Total | 12,500 | 19,995 | 21,200 |

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

The very amount of the unprecedented reductions of the National Debt in recent years has given rise to doubts of their genuineness, and now that these doubts have passed away critics have been driven to the extraordinary suggestion that paying off debt is not in itself desirable. It needs but to reiterate that the only real reserve for war is reduction of debt in time of peace.

The decrease in the debt, which amounts to nearly £56,000,000 in the five completed financial years under Liberal Government, is due to

The increased appropriations from revenue,

The application of surpluses, and
The curtailment of capital expenditure.

DEBT OUTSTANDING ON 31st MARCH
(000's omitted).

| | Dead-weight. | Other. | Aggregate. | Increase or Decrease. |
|------|--------------|--------|------------|-----------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| 1903 | 770,779 | 27,570 | 798,349 | — |
| 1904 | 762,630 | 31,868 | 794,498 | - 3,851 |
| 1905 | 755,072 | 41,664 | 796,736 | + 2,238 |
| 1906 | 743,220 | 45,770 | 788,990 | - 7,746 |
| 1907 | 729,506 | 49,659 | 779,165 | - 9,825 |
| 1908 | 711,476 | 50,850 | 762,326 | - 16,839 |
| 1909 | 702,688 | 51,433 | 754,121 | - 8,205 |
| 1910 | *692,216 | 49,218 | *741,464 | - 12,657 |
| 1911 | 685,233 | 47,840 | 733,073 | - 8,391 |

* Excludes £21,000,000 temporarily borrowed owing to the rejection of the Budget, and repaid in the following year.

While the figures given in the annual National Debt Return represent the actual facts, there are certain considerations to be taken into account which materially affect the figures for comparative purposes. Sums applicable to reduction of debt on account

of a particular year are frequently not applied within the year, and surpluses necessarily cannot be so applied, but as it is only a case of postponement it is not necessary to adjust the figures except at the commencement and close of groups of years.

This table shows that in the three years after the close of the war the net reduction was £9,350,000, after allowing for an increase of £18,200,000 in other capital liabilities; thus, though a reasonable provision was made from revenue for reduction of debt, it was rendered practically nugatory by further borrowing. On March 31st, 1906, however, there remained in the hands of the National Debt Commissioners £1,004,000 available for reduction of debt, and the year resulted in a surplus of £3,466,000, which may be credited to the Conservative Government, although judging by their previous operations with the Old Sinking Fund there was no certainty of its application to the debt. This makes a total of £13,529,000 for the three years, or an average of £4,610,000 per annum. Even this result was only attained with the help of £3,000,000 received from the Transvaal in 1903-4.

One of the first actions of the Liberal Government was to change this crooked finance, and, while it was not possible to relieve the burden occasioned by the existing debt for capital works, they put an end as soon as possible to further borrowing, save for the remunerative telephones, the expenditure being met from the revenue of the year. At the same time the provision for debt reduction was increased by £500,000 in the first year, and by a further million in 1907-8, and surpluses were applied, as they should be, in reduction of debt.

So little had been known of the previous state of affairs that the effect on the debt of these simple changes provoked astonishment bordering on incredulity. The table shows that in the five years ended March

31st, 1911, the reduction amounted to £55,917,000, but there falls to be deducted from this amount the adjustment made above in favour of the previous Government, viz., £4,470,000, and to be added £2,181,000 cash in the hands of the National Debt Commissioners, and £2,356,000, the portion of the surplus on 31st March, 1911, to be devoted to this purpose, the true reduction in the five years thus being £56,084,000, or an average of £11,217,000 per annum.

The debt provision for the year 1911-12 in respect of the deadweight debt is £6,855,000, as shown in the Chancellor's Financial Statement of May 16th, and the reduction of other capital liabilities by the operation of annuities would be somewhat less than last year's expenditure for this purpose, owing to

the cessation of one of the annuities, say, £2,400,000, making a gross provision of £9,255,000 for reduction of debt, against which it is estimated that £1,575,000 will be borrowed for telephones, &c., making a net estimated provision of £7,680,000. This net provision for reduction of debt is with one exception larger than any sum so applied out of revenue prior to the commencement of the present Liberal rule, and is £3,000,000 more than the average under the last Conservative administration. The one exception is the year 1897-8, when £7,730,000 was charged against the revenue of the year and no borrowing took place, but the actual result of 1911-12 will probably exceed this by £500,000 owing to the borrowing being much below the estimate.

THE DEPRECIATION OF CONSOLS.

Amid the many adverse influences which have affected the prices of high-class securities during the past decade, there has been one which, for the last six years, has affected Consols alone; this is the "well organised despondency" of the politician and the Press. Few records have been made by many stocks, but Consols alone is billed and head-lined. There is one type of explanation which we trust a perusal of the foregoing record of Expenditure, Taxation, and National Debt will enable the reader to reject—that explanation which dilates on the iniquities of "Lloyd George Finance," and beneath a feigned dismay hides an ill-disguised satisfaction at a fall in prices which may serve political ends.

Consols, as the premier security of the world, are open to influences from every quarter. They constitute the international barometer for Europe and the world, and give the measure of the political and financial stability of our own country. As the most readily realisable security they are almost the equivalent of cash, and at the same time they form the first investment stock. Consols are consequently open to general and political influences, to money and stock market influences, and to the trend of direct investment in the Consol market and in the stock itself.

The extraordinary prosperity of the older countries in recent years has given power by the increase of capital to develop the newer ones. Such enterprise is necessarily more risky, and requires a higher rate of interest. But in many cases the result is assured, and it is the shortage of convertible wealth in a new country which leads to a higher price being paid for the loan of capital and its consequent attraction abroad. While it is not for the moment contended that a man sells Consols to exploit a South American railway, the attraction of higher interest may through many steps lead to the same result, though the actual seller of Consols may not move his money farther than Irish Land. This movement of capital has been

ascribed to the heavier direct taxes now levied in this country, and the increase in income from abroad disclosed in the Report of the Inland Revenue Commissioners is adduced as evidence. The figures for the last 10 years are as follows:—

INCOME DERIVED FROM INVESTMENTS
ABROAD.

| Year. | Income. £ | Increase. £ |
|---------|--------------|----------------|
| 1900-1 | 60,332,000 | 65,000 |
| 1901-2 | 62,559,000 | 2,227,000 |
| 1902-3 | 63,829,000 | 1,270,000 |
| 1903-4 | 65,865,000 | 2,036,000 |
| 1904-5 | 66,062,000 | 197,000 |
| 1905-6 | 73,899,000 | 7,837,000 |
| 1906-7 | 79,560,000 | 5,661,000 |
| 1907-8 | 85,116,000 | 5,556,000 |
| 1908-9 | 88,837,000 | 3,721,000 |
| 1909-10 | 93,264,000 | 4,427,000 |

These figures dispose of any political significance in the movement, for the largest jump in income is in the last year of the late Government, and it follows that the capital from which the income is derived must have been invested abroad at least 12 months earlier than that, probably three or four years, to have become so productive.

The first sign that this export of capital was unhealthy would be a shortage of capital at home, and none such has yet appeared; moreover, the implication that income and capital are not subject to taxation abroad is far from being correct.

Another direction in which capital has been absorbed is in the absolute waste of war and disaster. While our own war is probably not accountable for more than the fall of 15 points which took place at the time, the offer in London of loans at attractive rates to finance the Japanese war with Russia had a further influence in the same direction, and it was to London insurance companies that San Francisco came for its rebuilding operations after the earthquake.

At home there is the influence of the widening of the investment powers of trustees, enabling them to invest in

many colonial securities. Though this change, which was introduced by Mr. Chamberlain, may be excellent both in itself and from a colonial point of view, probably benefiting the Colonies to the extent of one per cent. in the rate of interest for their loans, it is hardly gracious of partisans to disown its influence on the price of Consols.

Finally, there is **Irish Land Finance**, started on a hopelessly insolvent basis in 1903, but now partially rectified by the Act of 1909. This policy, which again may be excellent from Ireland's point of view, has resulted in the creation of a competitive stock with a

The Prospect

The influences which are tending to mitigate the fall and must lead to a recovery have received less attention than the circumstances just enumerated. The magnitude of the **redemption of debt** in recent years has been explained under "National Debt," but there has also taken place more recently a change in the application of the Sinking Funds. For the war there was created a litter of miscellaneous securities, bills and bonds, which were a weakness in case of emergency, and the Government rightly turned the attack first towards these. They have now been reduced by £25,000,000 to more manageable proportions, and the weight of the Sinking Fund is now impinging on Consols, all the more heavily, of course, owing to the advantageous price at which they are being bought for the nation. The change is shown in the following table:—

GOVERNMENT SECURITIES REDEEMED.

(000's omitted.)

| Stock, &c. | 3 years to 31st March 1906. | 3 years to 31st March 1909. | 2 years to 31st March 1911. |
|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| Consols | 5,503 | 11,377 | 11,096 |
| 2½ & 2½ per cents. . . | 535 | 832 | 428 |
| War Stock and Ex- chequer Bonds . . | 7,500 | 18,160 | 2,340 |
| Treasury Bills | 1,920 | 4,713 | — |
| Terminable Annu- ties and other | | | |
| Capital Liabilities | + 6,100 | + 212 | 7,185 |
| Total | 9,358 | 34,870 | 21,049 |

It appears from an answer to a question in the House of Commons that the balance of Sinking Fund on 31st March, 1911, has been employed in paying off a further £1,000,000 Bonds and in buying £1,449,000 Consols for cancellation.

Thus, despite the partial suspension of the Sinking Fund in 1909-10, Consols have been bought in the past two years to as large an amount as in the previous three and twice the amount of the three before that, while on the terminable annuity operations with the National Debt Commissioners, £7,000,000 has been returned to them to seek investment in gilt-edged stocks instead of large sums being borrowed. Further, the monthly

higher rate of interest in the heart of the Consol market.

All these influences are necessarily at work, regardless of present political conditions, but there is one which has been justly urged as due to the present Government, and it may be mentioned for the purpose of gauging its significance. Whatever may be the ultimate incidence of **Estate Duties** in the monetary world, there is no doubt that their payment necessitates some sales of securities, perhaps some £500,000 in the last two years, but the increased amount purchased for the Sinking Fund in the same period has averaged more than three times this figure.

of Recovery.

returns show that **£6,748,000 new money has come to the Commissioners through the Savings Banks** to October 7th, 1911, against £3,867,000 for the whole of 1910.

The purchases of stock by the Post Office investor in 1910 amounted to £3,183,000, only £11,000 short of the highest for the last 15 years. These shrewd small investors had increased in numbers in the year from 157,418 to 165,419, and held on an average £140 against £137. The total holding on December 31st, 1910, was over £23,000,000, and by the monthly returns cheap stock is being picked up at an even faster rate this year. The **Postmaster-General's recent circular**, obtainable at any post-office, will give a further filip to the growth of this firm holding. Thus if well-organised despondency has depreciated the stock, it has led to very good bargains being made by the Government on behalf of the nation as a whole and by the small investor.

The influence of **Irish Land Finance** has also changed to a degree not appreciated. Under the Act of 1909 stock may be issued direct to the vendors of the land at certain fixed prices, and such advantage is being taken of this more expeditious process that the amount of money required to finance transactions is reduced to some three or four millions a year, which the National Debt Commissioners are able to provide with ease. Consequently, it is probable that no more public issues of Land Stock will take place. The **Local Loans Fund** has also reached equilibrium; no issue of stock has been made since 1904, and the repayments suffice to finance fresh advances.

Besides these influences which are already operating, there is next year a further power to be at work in the gilt-edged market, a power which will grow for many years. National Insurance means thrift on a scale larger than any voluntary efforts of the past. The growth of the reserve funds will not be comparable with that of the early years of a friendly society, because the income is to bear the weight of old lives, but in actual money it will be measured by millions, and this latest effort of social reform will act favourably on the quotations of Government and other trustee securities.

II.—THE YEAR 1910-II.

The year ended 31st March, 1911, was the second year of Budget complication, and must therefore be to a large extent negligible for comparative and statistical purposes. Including arrears of the previous year the revenue had been estimated at £199,791,000, and the expenditure at £173,234,000.

The estimates provided for large additions to the naval and educational services, for land valuation, and for grants under the Development Act. After meeting the deficit of 1909-10 there was sufficient surplus to cover part of the cost of the old age pensioners hitherto disqualified by the receipt of poor law relief and to leave a small balance for contingencies.

The actual results showed a great

improvement on these estimates, all the heads of revenue which depend on national prosperity producing large surpluses, amounting in all to £4,060,000, after allowing for a shortage of a million and a half on Estate Duties and half a million on the Land-Value Duties. This progress was so apparent during the year that in the autumn of 1910 the Chancellor undertook the portion of the cost of removing the poor law disqualification which was to be met by the Guardians, but the expenditure, nevertheless, fell short of estimates by £1,238,000, which, with the estimated balance of £309,000 and the surplus of revenue, produced a total surplus of £5,607,000, as shown by the following account.

For the disposal of this sum see Surpluses, page 49.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR 1910-11.

| REVENUE. | | EXPENDITURE | |
|---------------------|--------------|--|--------------|
| | £ | | |
| Customs | 33,140,000 | I.—CONSOLIDATED FUND SERVICES— | £ £ |
| Excise | 40,020,000 | 1. National Debt Services:— | |
| Estate, &c., Duties | 25,452,000 | (a) Funded Debt:— | |
| Stamps (exclusive | | 1. Interest | 15,377,321 |
| of Fee, &c., | | 2. Terminable Annuities | 3,481,490 |
| Stamps) | 9,784,000 | (b) Unfunded Debt, Interest | 1,353,178 |
| Land Tax | 1,220,000 | (c) Management of the Debt | 175,050 |
| House Duty | 3,080,000 | (d) New Sinking Fund | 4,112,961 |
| Property and In- | | | 24,500,000 |
| come Tax | 61,946,000 | Expenses under War Loan (Redemp- | |
| Land Value Duties | 520,000 | tion) Act, 1910 | 54,004 |
| Post Office | 24,350,000 | 2. Development and Road Improve- | |
| Crown Lands (Net) | 500,000 | ment Funds | 1,362,641 |
| Receipts from Suez | | 3. Payments to Local Taxation | |
| Canal Shares | | Accounts, &c. | 9,881,709 |
| and Sundry | | 4. Other Consolidated Fund Services:— | |
| Loans | 1,234,350 | (a) Civil List | 470,000 |
| Miscellaneous (in- | | (b) Annuities and Pensions | 299,933 |
| cluding Fee, &c., | | (c) Salaries and Allowances | 56,609 |
| Stamps) | 2,604,238 | (d) Courts of Justice | 514,283 |
| | | (e) Miscellaneous Services | 323,488 |
| | | | 1,664,313 |
| | | II.—SUPPLY SERVICES, viz.:— | |
| | | (1) Army Services | 27,448,800 |
| | | (2) Ordnance Factories | 200 |
| | | (3) Navy Services | 40,386,000 |
| | | (4) Miscellaneous Civil Services | 43,098,000 |
| | | (5) Customs and Excise | 2,211,000 |
| | | (6) Inland Revenue | 1,708,000 |
| | | (6) Post Office Services | 19,681,000 |
| | | | 134,533,000 |
| | | TOTAL EXPENDITURE CHARGEABLE AGAINST THE | |
| | | REVENUE | £171,995,667 |
| | | DEFICIT 1909-10 | £26,248,155 |
| | | | 198,243,822 |
| | | SURPLUS on the two years 1909-10 and 1910-11 | 5,606,766 |
| TOTAL REVENUE | £203,850,588 | | £203,850,588 |

It will be noticed that the amounts of income are in nearly every case expressed in "round figures." This is because they are not the actual sums received during the year by the various collecting departments, but the amounts paid by them into the Exchequer. Similarly the issues for Supply Services are in "round figures" approximating to the expenditure, adjustment being made in the succeeding year.

III.—THE BUDGET OF 1911-12.

No New Taxation. Additional Expenditure of 7½ Millions.

The Budget for the current year, ending 31st March, 1912, was introduced by Mr. Lloyd George on 16th May, 1911. The estimates of expenditure already presented to Parliament showed an increase of over eight millions, and there was again some expectation of increases in taxation, but the prophets were less certain in their predictions. The past two years had shown that the original programme of taxation of 1909-10 was fulfilling the Chancellor's intentions of a larger yield in succeeding years, and although it was not safe to draw conclusions from the closed years, owing to the confusion of accounts resulting from the rejection of the Budget in 1909, it was known that the collection of Income Tax had been allowed to slacken, considerable arrears would fall to be gathered in at the commencement of the current year, and the Chancellor might therefore succeed in just balancing his account.

The estimated expenditure, full details of which are given on a later page, compares as follows with the estimate for the previous year:—

ESTIMATES 1911-12.

| | Estimate, 1911-12. | Increase or Decrease on 1910-11. |
|---|-----------------------|---|
| | £ | £ |
| National Debt Services | 24,500,000 | — 54,000 |
| Development & Road Improvement Funds | 1,280,000 | — 460,000 |
| Payments to Local Taxation Accounts | 9,549,000 | — 383,000 |
| Other Consolidated Fund Services | 1,707,000 | + 61,000 |
| Army | 27,690,000 | — 70,000 |
| Navy | 44,393,000 | + 3,789,000 |
| Education | 18,365,000 | + 390,000 |
| Old-Age Pensions .. | 12,415,000 | + 2,745,000 |
| Other Civil Services .. | 16,008,000 | + 517,000 |
| Customs, Excise, and Inland Revenue .. | 3,995,000 | — 89,000 |
| Post Office | 21,082,000 | + 1,254,000 |
| | 180,984,000 | + 7,750,000 |

Of the increase of the Navy, £2,724,000 is on account of construction and armaments consequent on the big battle-ship programme. The Old Age Pension growth represents the full year's charge in respect of the removal of the poor law relief disqualification, only one quarter's cost having to be provided last year. The Post Office charge is also abnormal, about £800,000 of the increase being caused by the purchase of the National Telephone Company on January 1st, 1912; the increase of telephone revenue more than covers this cost.

The comparison of the estimated revenue of the current year with the actual receipts for 1910-11 is complicated by the fact that arrears from 1909-10 to the estimated amount of

£30,046,000 were received in the past financial year, and in the following table the increases and decreases are in comparison with the estimated true revenue of 1910-11.

REVENUE ESTIMATES, 1911-12.

| | Estimate. | More or less than 1910-11. |
|---|-------------|----------------------------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Customs | 33,732,000 | + 738,000 |
| Excise | 35,868,000 | — 1,512,000 |
| Estate, &c., Duties .. | 25,150,000 | + 1,078,000 |
| Stamps | 9,600,000 | — 184,000 |
| Land Tax | 2,700,000 | + 340,000 |
| House Duty | | |
| Property and In- come Tax, includ- ing Super-Tax .. | 44,300,000 | + 5,804,000 |
| Land Value Duties .. | 700,000 | + 670,000 |
| Post Office | 25,740,000 | + 1,390,000 |
| Crown Lands | 500,000 | — |
| Suez Canal, &c. | 1,226,000 | — 9,000 |
| Miscellaneous | 2,200,000 | — 404,000 |
| | 181,716,000 | + 7,911,000 |

The Customs increase of about 2 per cent. is normal, and Excise should have shown a similar increase; but the revenue of last year, in addition to arrears, included the re-stocking by whisky dealers, and the estimate is very cautious accordingly. The Estate Duties are believed to be based on averages, but the increased duties of 1909-10 are only now taking full effect owing to the time taken in the administration of the larger estates.

With regard to Income-Tax and Super-Tax the Chancellor of the Exchequer estimated last year that there would still be arrears of £3,000,000 on 31st March, 1911. The debate in the House of Commons in the spring elicited the fact that the collection had not been hurried towards the close of the year, and owing to the misunderstanding of a subordinate official some £600,000, due from railway companies, had actually been held over for some days. Moreover, the accounts since published show that the Inland Revenue authorities had in hand £1,350,000 more than in the previous year, so that it is probable that the Chancellor's estimate of a year ago is correct, and the above increase is abnormal to the extent of £3,000,000.

The estimate for Land Value Duties is also largely in respect of arrears, which accounts for the large increase over the estimated true revenue of 1910-11 received within that year. These duties will, of course, be in arrear for some years to come until the valuation of the land nears completion.

The Mint profits form a large item under Miscellaneous, and account for the fluctuations under this head.

For detailed account of the National Revenue see pages 50-56.

The Disposal of the Surpluses.

Balancing the two sides of the account, the out-turn for the year 1911-12 stands thus:—

| | |
|----------------------|----------------|
| Revenue | £181,716,000 |
| Expenditure | 183,984,000 |
| Surplus | 732,000 |

With this surplus the Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed to deal as follows:—

The expenditure would be increased by provision for payment of the private members of the House of Commons at the rate of £400 per annum each, costing £250,000, while the preliminary expenses of National Insurance were estimated at £50,000 within the year.

The revenue would be decreased by the alteration of the *cocoa duty*, so as to remove its protective character, and by a change in the practice of valuing buildings attached to licensed premises, the two changes costing £95,000. A relief in the *stamp duty* on short-term securities was expected to bring sufficient increase in business to nullify any loss to the revenue. Thus, of the surplus a total of £395,000

was used, leaving for contingencies a balance of £337,000, which has already been absorbed by the Supplementary Estimates of August last.

In the Budget speech the Chancellor also dealt with the realised surplus of the two years 1909-10 and 1910-11, which, by the Revenue Act, 1911, were combined for accounting purposes. This surplus of £5,607,000 would in default of legislation to the contrary be applied in reduction of the National Debt.

Mr. Lloyd George proposed to apply £1,500,000 to the building of sanatoria for the treatment of consumption in connection with the National Insurance scheme, £1,500,000 to the *Development Fund*, in lieu of three instalments of £500,000 promised for the next three years, and £250,000 on loan to *East Africa* for railway and harbour improvement, leaving £2,366,000 to be applied in reduction of the National Debt. This latter sum is, of course, the product of two years, but with the exception of Mr. Asquith's surpluses it is more than twice as large as any sum derived from this source for the past 20 years.

The Financial Prospects of the Year.

THE REVENUE TO 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1911.

| | 1910-11. | 1911-12. | Decrease. | Inc. less Arrears in 1910-11. | Estimated True Increase. |
|---|-------------|------------|------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Customs | £15,892,000 | 16,083,000 | + 191,000 | 337,000 | 693,000 |
| Excise | 19,355,000 | 17,210,000 | 2,145,000 | 495,000 | - 1,562,000 |
| Estate, &c., Duties | 12,951,000 | 11,655,000 | 1,296,000 | 84,000 | - 1,078,000 |
| Stamps | 4,712,000 | 4,806,000 | 406,000 | - 406,000 | - 184,000 |
| Land Tax and House Duty | 2,230,000 | 580,000 | 1,650,000 | 290,000 | 340,000 |
| Property and Income Tax | 30,924,000 | 10,039,000 | 20,885,000 | 2,565,000 | 5,804,000 |
| Land Value Duties | — | 130,000 | + 130,000 | 130,000 | 670,000 |
| Post Office | 10,555,000 | 10,855,000 | + 300,000 | 300,000 | 1,390,000 |
| Crown Lands | 195,000 | 210,000 | + 15,000 | 15,000 | — |
| Receipts from Suez Canal Shares, &c. | 716,482 | 777,584 | + 61,102 | 61,102 | - 9,000 |
| Miscellaneous | 1,393,514 | 1,183,137 | 210,377 | - 210,377 | - 404,000 |
| | 98,923,996 | 73,028,721 | 25,895,275 | 3,660,725 | 7,911,000 |

The returns of the Revenue to date tend to a favourable outturn for the year. In considering the above table it will be remembered that all the arrears of revenue, with the exception of the Land Value Duties, had been collected by 30th September, 1910. The adjustment of the last two columns has been made from the published figures of arrears, but it is evident that in the case of the **Land Value Duties** the method does not yield a true result as the expected increase is only £180,000, against £670,000 in the table

above. **Excise** shows an increase instead of the expected decrease; even allowing for a falling off in the succeeding months it will probably yield a surplus of £1,000,000. A shortage on **Estate Duties and Stamps** will counteract this good tendency, and as the remaining heads are fairly normal it is probable that the total revenue will not differ appreciably from the estimate. The increase set down to Post Office will be realised in the March quarter.

THE EXPENDITURE TO 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1911.

| | 1910-11. | 1911-12. | Increase. | Decrease. | Est. Increase or Decrease. |
|--|-------------|------------|-----------|-----------|----------------------------|
| National Debt Services | £10,341,359 | 10,147,946 | — | 193,413 | - 54,000 |
| Development and Rd. Improv. Funds | 10,000 | 590,026 | 580,026 | — | - 83,000 |
| Payments to Local Taxation Accts, &c. | 3,375,501 | 3,420,558 | 54,057 | — | - 333,000 |
| Other Consolidated Fund Services | 826,327 | 854,312 | 27,985 | — | + 43,000 |
| Supply Services | 63,654,427 | 66,753,618 | 3,099,191 | — | + 10,079,000 |
| | 78,207,614 | 81,775,460 | 3,761,259 | 193,413 | + 9,652,000 |

The increase under Development is more apparent than real, as the issues took place later in the year 1910-11, when the schemes were not in working order. The most favourable feature is the increase of only £3,100,000 in Supply Services, as the estimate for the year is £10,000,000 more than the actual issues of 1910-11. Even allowing for large outgoings, which are usual in March, it is probable that a saving of at least £2,000,000 will be made on this head.

INCREASE IN NUMBER OF CIVIL SERVANTS.

| | March 31st, 1902 | March 31st, 1911 | In- crease. |
|---|------------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| Post Office | 77,035 | 99,355 | 22,320 |
| Customs and In. Rev. | 9,265 | 10,682 | 1,417 |
| Admiralty | 8,869 | 9,248 | 379 |
| Prisons Commissioners and Board (U.K. total) | 3,754 | 4,213 | 459 |
| Board of Trade | 1,093 | 1,565 | 472 |
| War Office | 1,039 | 1,389 | 350 |
| Board of Education and Education De- partment, Scotland | 1,269 | 1,721 | 452 |

IV.—THE REVENUE IN DETAIL.

A Guide to the Taxpayer.

I.—Customs.

The Customs Duties, at the principal rate for each article, are as follows, with the net receipts for the year ended March 31st, 1911:—

| Rate. | Head of Duty. | Receipts. |
|------------------|--|-------------|
| 33s. 36 gals. | Beer, Mum, & Spruce | £1,241 |
| 8s. 3d. " | Beer of other sorts .. | 21,847 |
| 13s. 3d. ewt. | Chicory | 46,372 |
| 1d. lb. | Cocoa | 214,647 |
| 2s. ewt. | Cocoa Husks | 124,249 |
| 2d. lb. | Chocolate | |
| 1d. lb. | Cocoa Butter | 179,305 |
| 14s. ewt. | Coffee | |
| 2s. ewt. | Currants | 124,068 |
| | Figs. | 63,684 |
| | Plums, Dried, French | 53,019 |
| 7s. cwt. | Plums & Prunellocs | |
| | Prunes | 10,669 |
| | Raisins | 220,372 |
| | Spirits, Col. & For. :— | |
| | Rum | 2,294,737 |
| 15s. 1d. gal. | Brandy | 1,100,355 |
| 15s. 2d. gal. | Geneva | 299,186 |
| | Of other sorts :— | |
| 15s. 3d. gal. | Sweetened ... | 514,326 |
| 15s. 2d. gal. | Unsweetened ... | |
| £1 1s. 5d. gal. | Liqueurs ... | |
| £1 4s. 1d. gal. | Perfumed ... | |
| 3d. gal. | Motor Spirit | 427,143 |
| | Sugar :— | |
| 1s. 10d. ewt. | Refined & unrefined | 2,766,403 |
| 10d. and | Molasses | 118,455 |
| 1s. 2d. cwt. | Glucose | |
| 7d. oz. | Saccharin | 80,459 |
| | Condensed Milk & Articles contain- ing Sugar | |
| 10d. cwt. | Tea | 5,938,594 |
| 5d. lb. | Tobacco | 17,193,506 |
| 3s. 8d. lb. | Cigars | 1,237,574 |
| 7s. lb. | Wine | |
| 1s. 3d. gal. | All other articles— Playing Cards .. | 20,709 |
| 3s. 9d. doz. pks | Charges on Foreign Spirits Bottled in Bond | 339 |
| 3d. doz. bots. | Isle of Man | 53,244 |
| | Moneys deposited ... | 5,443 |
| | Total Customs | £33,199,996 |

II.—Excise.

The Excise Duties are detailed as far as possible, in the following table, with the net receipts for the year ended March 31st, 1911:—

| Rate. | Head of Duty. | Receipts. |
|----------------------|--|-------------|
| 7s. 9d. barrel | Beer Duty | £12,767,217 |
| 14s. 9d. gal. | Spirit Duty | 18,751,206 |
| 2 & 5 per cent | Rly. Passenger Duty | 315,166 |
| 3rd class exempt. | | |
| 1s. 3d. oz. | Saccharin | 7,262 |
| 2s. 9d. cwt. | Glucose | 58,151 |
| 3s. 6d. lb. | Tobacco (Home Grown) | 12,315 |
| 3d. gal. | Motor Spirit | 13,234 |
| 12s. 1d. cwt. | Chicory Duty | 1,845 |
| 1d. gr. lb. | Coffee Mixture Labs. | 1,372 |
| 1½d. to £1 | Patent Medicines .. | 325,646 |
| 3d. pack | Playing Cards | 30,686 |
| | Club Duty (2 years) | 94,641 |
| | Monopoly Values .. | 12,343 |
| | Licence Duties :— | |
| | Brewers | 758,488 |
| | Spirits—Distillers and Rectifiers .. | 39,896 |
| | Tobacco M'facturers | 4,778 |
| | Medicine (Patent) .. | 10,673 |
| | Motor Spirit Dealers | 6,009 |
| | Methylated Spirit Dealers | 10,169 |
| | Beer, Spirits, &c., { Retailers | 5,972,302 |
| | Tobacco Dealers .. | 99,821 |
| | † Dog | 46,761 |
| | † Gun | 20,432 |
| | † Game | 35,410 |
| | † Establishment :— | |
| | † Male Servants .. | 15,658 |
| | † Armorial Bearings | 5,232 |
| | Carriages | 538,697 |
| | Motor Cars | |
| | Auctioneers | 89,610 |
| | Appraisers, &c. ... | 26,598 |
| | Hawkers & Pedlars | |
| | Plate Dealers—Gold and Silver | 65,650 |
| | Pawnbrokers | 39,998 |
| | Other receipts | 2,357 |
| | Total Excise | £40,178,623 |

£33,140,000 was paid into the Exchequer and £86,850 to the Isle of Man.

£40,020,000 was paid into the Exchequer during the year.

† Exclusive of England and Wales.

III.—ESTATE LEGACY & SUCCESSION DUTIES.

Estate Duty.—Under the Finance Act, 1894, the principal duty under this head is payable on the capital value of all property, real or personal, settled or not settled, passing at the death of any person. The duty is calculated at certain rates per cent., increasing with the total value of the estate.

Small estates not exceeding £300 or £500 gross are liable to 30s. or 50s. estate duty only, and property not exceeding £1,000 is exempt from legacy or succession duties. Settled property is chargeable with 2 per cent. in addition to the above rates, increased from 1 per cent. by the Finance (1909-10) Act.

In addition to the above duties, fees to a not inconsiderable amount are payable when probate is granted. These are intended to cover the cost of official services and are disproportionately heavy on the smaller estates.

The following table shows the rates imposed by Sir William Harcourt in 1894, the increased rates on large estates imposed by Mr. Asquith in 1907, and those imposed by the Finance Act of 1909-10:—

| Where the principal value. | | Duty per cent. | | |
|----------------------------|-----------|----------------|------|------|
| Exceeds | and not | 1894 | 1907 | 1909 |
| £ | £ | | | |
| 100 | 500 | 1 | | 1 |
| 500 | 1,000 | 2 | | 2 |
| 1,000 | 5,000 | 3 | | 3 |
| 5,000 | 10,000 | 3 | | 4 |
| 10,000 | 20,000 | 4 | | 5 |
| 20,000 | 25,000 | 4 | | 6 |
| 25,000 | 40,000 | 4½ | | 6 |
| 40,000 | 50,000 | 4½ | | 7 |
| 50,000 | 70,000 | 5 | | 7 |
| 70,000 | 75,000 | 5 | | 8 |
| 75,000 | 100,000 | 5½ | | 8 |
| 100,000 | 150,000 | 6 | | 9 |
| 150,000 | 200,000 | 6½ | 7 | 10 |
| 200,000 | 250,000 | 6½ | 7 | 11 |
| 250,000 | 400,000 | 7 | 8 | 11 |
| 400,000 | 500,000 | 7 | 8 | 12 |
| 500,000 | 600,000 | 7½ | 9 | 12 |
| 600,000 | 750,000 | 7½ | 9 | 13 |
| 750,000 | 800,000 | 7½ | 10 | 13 |
| 800,000 | 1,000,000 | 7½ | 10 | 14 |
| 1,000,000 | 1,500,000 | 8 | 11* | 15 |
| 1,500,000 | 2,000,000 | 8 | 12* | 15 |
| 2,000,000 | 2,500,000 | 8 | 13* | 15 |
| 2,500,000 | 3,000,000 | 8 | 14* | 15 |
| 3,000,000 | — | 8 | 15* | 15 |

* 10 % only on the first £1,000,000.

Estates Passing in 1910-11.

The number and capital value of estates passed in 1910-11 was as follows:—

| Class. | No. | Value*. |
|--------------------|--------|-------------|
| Under £300 gross | 19,568 | £3,753,000 |
| " 500 " | 9,612 | 3,801,000 |
| Exceeding £100 net | 6,151 | 2,674,000 |
| " 500 " | 10,948 | 9,070,000 |
| " 1,000 " | 14,499 | 38,775,000 |
| " 5,000 " | 3,115 | 25,347,000 |
| " 10,000 " | 1,967 | 31,488,000 |
| " 20,000 " | 401 | 9,693,000 |
| " 25,000 " | 633 | 21,123,000 |
| " 40,000 " | 220 | 10,756,000 |
| " 50,000 " | 230 | 14,489,000 |
| " 70,000 " | 43 | 8,316,000 |
| " 75,000 " | 126 | 12,560,000 |
| " 100,000 " | 113 | 13,991,000 |
| " 150,000 " | 61 | 10,682,000 |
| " 200,000 " | 22 | 4,228,000 |
| " 250,000 " | 48 | 16,738,000 |
| " 400,000 " | 11 | 5,904,000 |
| " 500,000 " | 1 | 2,335,000 |
| " 600,000 " | 6 | 4,121,000 |
| " 750,000 " | 2 | 3,113,000 |
| " 800,000 " | 4 | 934,000 |
| " 1,000,000 " | 11 | 12,316,000 |
| " 1,500,000 " | — | —1,364,000 |
| " 2,000,000 " | 2 | 8,238,000 |
| " 2,500,000 " | 1 | 112,000 |
| " 3,000,000 " | — | 4,447,000 |
| | 67,795 | 272,725,000 |

* The figure for value in the various classes includes balances of estates only partially disclosed at the time of presenting the affidavit in earlier years, and in some cases has been diminished by transfer to other classes on final disclosure.

Legacy and Succession Duties are payable on any legacy or succession, at varying rates according to the degree of relationship of the beneficiaries.

On benefits in the direct line, to father, mother, children, or descendants, or to husband or wife of the deceased, the rate is 1 per cent. If the estate does not exceed £15,000 the duty at this rate is not payable, nor is it payable in any case on such a benefit only amounting to £1,000, or, in the case of a widow or child under 21, £2,000.

On benefits to relatives of the second degree—brother, sister, or their descendants—the rate is 5 per cent., and to other relatives and to strangers in blood the rate is 10 per cent.

Corporation Duty at 5 per cent. on the net annual income or profits is payable on real or personal property in corporate hands.

Receipts, 1910-11.—The net receipt in respect of each of these duties in the year ended March 31st, 1911, is shown in the following table. Probate and Account Duty and Temporary Estate Duty are payable on estates of persons dying before the change of duties in 1894, and consequently the receipts are small and diminishing.

| | |
|--------------------------------|-------------|
| Estate Duty | £20,700,526 |
| Probate and Account Duty | 34,521 |
| Temporary Estate Duty | 4,044 |
| Legacy Duty | 4,203,658 |
| Succession Duty | 714,542 |
| Corporation Duty | 51,705 |

£25,708,996

The amount paid into the Exchequer in the year was £25,452,000.

IV. Stamp Duties, Rates and Receipts.

The following table gives the revenue from Stamp Duties in the year ended March 31st, 1911, with the principal rate of duty applicable to the respective heads:—

| Rate per cent. | Head of Duty. | Receipts. |
|--------------------|--|-------------------|
| * | Deeds and other Instruments not otherwise enumerated | £ 4,231,453 |
| — | Deeds, &c., Penalties | 6,847 |
| 20s. | Bonds to Bearer and Substituted Securities. } | 793,200 |
| 5s. | Companies Capital Duty .. | 723,938 |
| 5s. | Do. (Limited Partnerships Act, 1907) | 183 |
| * | Contract Notes | 449,799 |
| 2s. 6d. | Loan Capital Duty | 12,968 |
| 1s. | Foreign Certificates to Bearer | 33,681 |
| | Share Warrants to Bearer.. | 119,511 |
| 30s. | United Kingdom. | |
| 20s. | Foreign or Colonial. | |
| 1s. | Bills of Exchange (fixed rate of 1d. for sight or 3 days' sight Bills) | 865,017 |
| 3s. 6d. | Bankers' Notes and Composition for Duties on Bankers' Bills and Notes .. | 120,668 |
| * | Licences and Certificates .. | 176,487 |
| 1s. | Life Insurances | 104,963 |
| 1d., 3d., or 6d. } | Marine Insurances | 183,690 |
| — | Receipts, Drafts, and other 1d. Stamps | 1,868,214 |
| | | £9,690,619 |

* Principal rates detailed below.

The amount paid into the Exchequer in the year was £9,784,000.

The principal Stamp Duties not given in the above summary are as follows:—

| | £ | s. | d. |
|---|---|----|----|
| Agreement under hand | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Apprenticeship, Instrument of | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| Bond on obtaining Letters of Administration | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Contract Note— | | | |

Where the value of the Stock, &c.,

| | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|----|---|
| Exceeds £5 but not £100 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| " 100 " 500 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| " 500 " 1,000 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| " 1,000 " 1,500 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| " 1,500 " 2,500 | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| " 2,500 " 5,000 | 0 | 6 | 0 |
| " 5,000 " 7,500 | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| " 7,500 " 10,000 | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| " 10,000 " 12,500 | 0 | 12 | 0 |
| " 12,500 " 15,000 | 0 | 14 | 0 |

V. Land Tax and House Duty.

(a) **The Land Tax.**—This historic form of direct taxation owes its present form to legislation of 1798. At that time 16,104 parishes in England and Wales contributed their quotas to the tax, the amount of these, together with £47,997 from Scotland, being fixed at £1,905,077. Arrangements, however, have long been in force by which the Land Tax can be redeemed, the amount received on this account being devoted to the reduction of the National Debt.

| Where the value of the Stock, &c., | £ | s. | d. |
|-------------------------------------|---|----|----|
| Exceeds 15,000 but not 17,500 | 0 | 18 | 0 |
| " 17,500 " 20,000 | 0 | 18 | 0 |
| " 20,000 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

| | | | |
|--|---|----|---|
| Conveyance or Transfer on sale of any property where the amount does not exceed £5 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Exceeds £5 but not £10 | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| " 10 " 15 | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| " 15 " 20 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| " 20 " 25 | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| " 25 " 50 | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| " 50 " 75 | 0 | 7 | 6 |
| " 75 " 100 | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| For each £50 to £500 an additional .. | 0 | 5 | 0 |

Beyond £500 the duty payable is 5s. for each £50 in the case of stock or marketable security, and in the case of other property for each £50 0 10 0

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| Copy or Extract from Register of Births, Marriages, Deaths, &c. | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| From other Public Registers | 0 | 1 | 0 |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| Duplicate or Counterpart of any Stamped Document | 0 | 5 | 0 |
|--|---|---|---|

Lease. In respect of the capital sum the same rate as for a conveyance (above).

In respect of the rent as follows:—

| | Under 35 years. | 35 years. | s. | d. | £ | s. | d. |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|----|----|---|----|----|
| Rent not exceeding £5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | | |
| Exceeding £5 but not £10 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 0 | | |
| " 10 " 15 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 18 | 0 | | |
| " 15 " 20 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0 | | |
| " 20 " 25 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | | |
| For each £25 to £100 an addl. | 5 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | | |
| Exceeding £100 for every £50 | 10 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|
| Power of Attorney— | | | | | | | |
| For Receipt of a Single Dividend .. | 0 | 1 | 0 | | | | |
| In any other case | 0 | 5 | 0 | | | | |
| For Sale or Transfer of Government Stocks— | | | | | | | |

| | | | |
|-------------------------|---|----|---|
| Under £100 | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| Over £100 | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| Licence, Marriage | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| " Special | 5 | 0 | 0 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|
| Mortgage— | | | | | | | |
| Not exceeding £10 | 0 | 0 | 3 | | | | |
| Exceeding £10 but not £25 | 0 | 0 | 8 | | | | |
| " 25 " 50 | 0 | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| " 50 " 100 | 0 | 2 | 6 | | | | |
| " 100 " 150 | 0 | 3 | 9 | | | | |
| " 150 " 200 | 0 | 5 | 0 | | | | |
| " 200 " 250 | 0 | 6 | 3 | | | | |
| " 250 " 300 | 0 | 7 | 6 | | | | |

| | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| For each £100 over £300 an additional | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| Passport | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Receipt for £2 or upwards | 0 | 0 | 1 |

The result is that more than one-half of the Land Tax has been redeemed, and the amount at present payable only amounts to £940,564. Certain abatements are allowed to the smaller landowners, and in the year 1910-11 the amount collectable was only £698,937. Owing to the conditions resulting from the delay in passing the Finance (1909-10) Act the amount received in the year 1910-11, including arrears, was £1,209,648.

(b) **Inhabited House Duty.**—This duty, which, like the Land Tax, does not apply to Ireland, is levied on all houses the annual value of which amounts to £20 and over, at the following rates and classifications:—

| | Where the Annual Value of the House is | | |
|-------------------|--|------------------|------------------|
| | £20 to £40. | £40 to £60. | Over £60. |
| | In the £. 3d. | In the £. 6d. | In the £. 9d. |
| Private Houses .. | 2d. | 4d. | 6d. |
| Residential Shops | | | |
| Hotels, &c. | | | |
| Farmhouses | | | |
| Lodging Houses .. | | | |

The net receipts of inhabited house duty for the year ending March 31st, 1911, amounted to £3,212,626

including arrears from the previous year. The following table shows the number of inhabited houses in Great Britain exempt from house duty and the number charged and their gross annual value for the year 1909-10. It also shows the percentage of increase in the last 10 years.

| | 1909-10. | | Increases over 1899-1900. | |
|------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------|----|
| | No. | Value. | % | % |
| Premises exempt | 7,096,066 | £ 120,434,008 | 16 | 32 |
| Premises charged | 1,964,454 | 94,239,912 | 23 | 18 |
| TOTAL | 9,060,520 | 214,673,920 | 18 | 26 |

VI. Property and Income Tax.

Yield in 1909-10, £37,679,902.

The **Income-tax** is an annual tax and comes before the House of Commons every year whether the rate is to be changed or not. Only one rate is fixed but graduation according to the amount and source of the income is obtained by a system of **abatements** from the amount of income and from the rate at which it is to be taxed. These abatements are so extensive that the nominal rate is no guide to the actual rate paid by the majority of individuals.

The abatements are as follows:—

| | | | |
|---|-----|---|-----|
| Incomes not exceeding £160 per annum, exempt. | | | |
| Exceeding £160 but not £400 abatement of £160 | | | |
| " 400 " | 500 | " | 150 |
| " 500 " | 600 | " | 120 |
| " 600 " | 700 | " | 70 |

An allowance is also made of the amount of Life Insurance premiums paid on policies on the life of the taxpayer or his wife up to the amount of one-sixth of his income, and where the income does not exceed £500 the amount of income taxed is further reduced by £10 for each child under the age of 16 years. The above abatements are made from the earned income in priority to the unearned.

With the nominal rate standing at 1s. 2d. relief in the tax payable is granted so as to reduce the rate on earned income to 9d. in the pound where the total income does not exceed £2,000, and to 1s. in the pound where the total income exceeds £2,000, but not £3,000.

For the purposes of the assessment, the annual value in the case of lands is reducible by one-eighth, and in the case of houses by one-sixth, to allow for maintenance, repairs, insurance, and management, and further relief to the extent of one-eighth for lands, and one-twelfth for houses not exceeding £8 annual value may be claimed on production of evidence that the sum has been expended over an average of five years.

It is important to remember that any claim for abatement or relief must

be made before 30th September in the year for which the tax is imposed.

An extension of the Income-tax introduced in 1909-10 is the imposition of a **super-tax** of 6d. in the £ on the amount of income in excess of £3,000 where the total income exceeds £5,000.

The following table shows the actual rate paid per pound of income in the case of incomes earned and unearned, and in a typical case of a taxpayer with three children whose income is nine-tenths earned and one-tenth unearned, and who spends one-twentieth of his income on life insurance. For purposes of comparison the corresponding rate is given for 1898-9, when the nominal rate was 8d. in the £.

THE GRADUATED INCOME TAX.

| In- come. | Earned, 1911-12. | Unearned, 1911-12. | Typical case, 1911-12. 1898-9. | |
|--------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|--------|
| | £ | d. | d. | d. |
| 160 | exempt | exempt. | exempt | exempt |
| 200 | 1-8 | 2-8 | exempt | 1-2 |
| 300 | 4-2 | 6-5 | 3-3 | 3-3 |
| 400 | 5-4 | 8-4 | 4-8 | 4-4 |
| 500 | 6-3 | 9-8 | 5-8 | 5-2 |
| 600 | 7-2 | 11-2 | 7-2 | 6-0 |
| 700 | 8-1 | 12-6 | 8-1 | 6-8 |
| 2,000 | 9-0 | 14-0 | 9-1 | 7-6 |
| 3,000 | 12-0 | 14-0 | 11-6 | 7-6 |
| 5,000 | 14-0 | 14-0 | 13-3 | 7-6 |
| 10,000 | 18-2 | 18-2 | 17-2 | 7-6 |
| 50,000 | 19-6 | 19-6 | 18-6 | 7-6 |

Thus, though the nominal rate of tax has increased 6d. in the period of this table, the actual tax on industry and business, represented by earned income, is no more in a typical case of income up to £300 per annum, and less than 1d. in the £ extra up to £500 per annum.

Recovery.—One of the features of this direct tax is the system of collection at the source; that is to say, if possible the Inland Revenue Department secures the tax on the income before it reaches the individual to whom it belongs. Thus the amount

of the tax on dividends from most stocks and shares is withheld by the authorities about to pay, and by them paid over to the Inland Revenue. Similarly, the tax on salaries of officials is deducted before payment, and the tax on rent is collected from the tenant, who is more easily reached than the owner, and who should deduct it from the rent for the March quarter. But it follows from this method of collection that tax is frequently levied from persons not liable by reason of exemption or abatement, and arrangements are made for individuals to reclaim from the Department. Claims should ordinarily be made in April in respect of the previous financial year, on a form to be obtained from Somerset House.

STATISTICS OF INCOME AND INCOME TAX.

| Year. | Gross Income Reviewed. | Income Taxed. | Net Produce of Tax. |
|---------|------------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1900-01 | 833,355,513 | 594,106,253 | 29,705,312 |
| 1901-02 | 866,993,453 | 607,550,919 | 35,440,470 |
| 1902-03 | 879,638,546 | 608,606,903 | 38,037,931 |
| 1903-04 | 902,753,585 | 615,012,373 | 28,188,067 |
| 1904-05 | 912,129,680 | 619,328,097 | 30,966,404 |
| 1905-06 | 925,184,556 | 632,024,746 | 31,601,237 |
| 1906-07 | 943,702,014 | 640,048,238 | 32,002,412 |
| 1907-08 | 980,117,000 | 671,313,000 | 32,380,000 |
| 1908-09 | 1,009,935,926 | 693,323,082 | 33,408,754 |
| 1909-10 | 1,011,100,345 | 686,812,104 | 37,679,692 |

The gross income brought under the review of the Inland Revenue Department in the year 1909-10 is divided into the following classes.

| | |
|--|-----------------------|
| Schedule A— | £ |
| Profits from the ownership of Lands, Houses, &c. | 272,146,541 |
| Schedule B— | |
| Profits from the occupation of Lands (Farmers' Profits mainly) | 17,322,508 |
| Schedule C— | |
| Profits from British, Indian, Colonial, and Foreign Government Securities | 49,127,227 |
| Schedule D— | |
| Profits from Business Concerns, Professions, Employments (except those of a public nature), and certain Interest.. | 558,605,639 |
| Schedule E— | |
| Salaries of Government, Corporation, and Public Company Officials | 113,828,430 |
| | £1,011,100,345 |

Figures for 1910-11 are not yet available, and owing to the rejection of the Finance Bill the figures for 1909-10 above are not complete.

The amount of revenue paid into the Exchequer was no less than **£61,946,000** owing to the arrears from the previous year.

A Safe Investment.

Every successful man is on the look-out for a safe and at the same time remunerative investment for his savings.

AN ENDOWMENT ASSURANCE POLICY,

payable at the expiration of a certain term to be selected by the investor, or in the event of his previous death, and issued by an Office of good repute, is beyond doubt an

INVESTMENT WHICH CANNOT BE IMPROVED UPON,

combining a good return in the shape of interest with absolute safety. The guarantee afforded by the FUNDS (£2,700,000) of the BRITANNIC ASSURANCE CO., LTD., is unquestionable.

The Britannic Assurance Co., Ltd.,

has many interesting Investment Policies to offer, and a letter of inquiry addressed to J. A. JEFFERSON (F.I.A.), Secretary, will receive prompt attention.

Chief Offices: Broad Street Corner, Birmingham.

VII.—Increment, Reversion, Undeveloped Land and Mineral Rights Duties.

The Land Value Duties imposed by Mr. Lloyd George's Finance Act of 1909-10 are four in number, and for their assessment a complete system of Land Valuation is in progress.

Valuation.—The Commissioners of Inland Revenue are empowered to value all the land in the United Kingdom, the valuation to show separately the site value and the total value, and to be taken "as on April 30th, 1909." The Commissioners must furnish the owner with the result of their provisional valuation, and if he does not object within sixty days this becomes the original site value, the basis upon which the new Land Duties are to be levied. There is a right of appeal to a referee, and from him to a court of law; the High Court in cases of property exceeding £500 in value, and the County Court in other cases.

(1) **Increment Value Duty.**—This is a duty of 20 per cent. on the increment value of land, payable when land is sold or leased for not less than 14 years, and also when it passes by death, and is to be charged on the amount by which the site value of the land at the time of payment exceeds the original site value. Full allowance is to be made for all money spent upon the land, and no duty is to be charged unless the increment amounts to at least 10 per cent. Where it is more than this the duty is not to be charged on the first 10 per cent. of increment. Corporations are to pay this duty in 1914, and at every subsequent 15 years, unless they prefer to make annual payments. They are also to pay when they sell or lease their land. Provision is made for securing that the duty shall only be payable once in respect of the same increment. Anyone who within the last 20 years has bought land which has since depreciated in value may substitute the amount originally paid by him for the official valuation of 1909. Then the duty will not be charged unless the amount lost through depreciation has been completely recovered, and a further appreciation has exceeded 10 per cent.

The exemptions from increment duty are:

- (a) Agricultural land, so long as it has no higher value than its value for agricultural purposes. Land used for sporting and allied purposes is classed as agricultural land, except where its value for such purposes exceeds its agricultural value.

- (b) Small houses occupied by their owners for 12 months previous to the collection of the duty and not exceeding the annual value of £40 a year in London, £26 in towns of 50,000 inhabitants and upwards, and £16 elsewhere. "Owner" includes the holder of a lease granted for 50 years or more.

- (c) Agricultural holdings of not more than 50 acres and of an average total value of not more than £75 per acre, occupied and

cultivated by their owners for 12 months. "Owner" also includes leaseholder.

- (d) Land held by any corporate or incorporate body for the purpose of games or recreation without view to profit.

(2) **Reversion Duty.**—This is a duty of 10 per cent. on the value of the benefit accruing to a lessor at the determination of a lease of land. The duty is not payable by those who before April 30th, 1909, have purchased reversions of leases determining within 40 years of that date, and full allowance will be made for all money spent on the property. The value of the benefit on which the duty charged is the amount by which the total value of the land at the end of the lease exceeds the total value at the time of the original grant, and provision is made to avoid the payment of both this duty and the increment duty on the same increase of value.

The exemptions from this duty extend to

- (a) Leases of agricultural land.

- (b) Leases for not more than 21 years.

- (c) Cases in which the lessor's reversionary interest is a leasehold interest not exceeding 21 years.

(3) **Undeveloped Land Duty.**—This is a duty of a halfpenny in the £ on the site value of undeveloped land exclusive of minerals under the surface. Undeveloped land is defined as land which has not been developed by the erection of dwelling-houses or of buildings for the purposes of any business, trade, or industry other than agriculture (but including glasshouses or greenhouses), or land not otherwise used bona fide for any business, trade, or industry other than agriculture.

For the collection of this tax the site value is that fixed by the Commissioners at the first valuation, or at any periodical valuation of undeveloped land for the time being in force. An allowance is made in cases where increment duty has been paid on the undeveloped land, and land upon which £100 an acre has been spent in making roads and sewers is not to be classed as undeveloped until 20 years after the cessation of such expenditure.

The exemptions from this duty are:—

- (a) Land of which the site value is not more than £50 an acre.

- (b) Agricultural land with a site value of more than £50 an acre but not in excess of its "agricultural value."

- (c) Public parks, gardens, and open spaces.

- (d) Woodlands, parks, gardens, and open spaces to which the public has reasonable access and the Commissioners think such access beneficial.

- (e) Land kept free of buildings in pursuance of any definite scheme of development, but only subject to the approval of the Commissioners.

- (f) Land used for games or other recreations, under an agreement of not less than five years

duration, or other conditions which make its continued use for this purpose probable.

(g) Plots of ground not exceeding an acre attached to houses; and under certain conditions gardens not exceeding five acres.

(h) Agricultural land held under a lease or agreement made before April 30th, 1909, while the tenancy continues.

(i) Agricultural land occupied and cultivated by the owner or the holder of a lease of not less than 50 years, if the total value of the land, together with any other belonging to the same owner, does not exceed £500.

(4) **Mineral Rights Duty.**—This is a duty of 5 per cent. per annum on the rental value of all rights to work minerals, and all mineral wayleaves.

Brick-clay, sand, chalk, limestone, and gravel are not minerals for the purposes of this tax, and full allowance is to be made for all capital expenditure. The duty is to be charged on the amount of rent paid by the working lessee in the last working year, or in cases where a proprietor himself works the minerals, the customary rent of the

district. Mining leases which pay this special duty will not be called upon to pay either increment duty or reversion duty.

Receipts 1910-11.

The net receipt in respect of each of these duties in the year ended March 31st, 1911, is shown in the following table. The delay in passing the Budget of 1909-10 postponed the commencement of the land valuation until the summer of 1910, and the yield of the first three duties which depend on this valuation is no guide to their productivity in succeeding years:—

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| Increment Value Duty | £ 127 |
| Reversion Duty | 257 |
| Undeveloped Land Duty | 2,351 |
| Mineral Rights Duty | 506,290 |
| | £309,025 |

The amount paid into the Exchequer in the year was £520,000.

VIII.—Non-Tax Revenue.

Besides the revenue derived from taxes there was received into the Exchequer, in the year ended 31st March, 1911, the sum of £28,688,000, chiefly on account of the Post Office. The following four accounts give some measure of detail:—

I.—Post Office Receipts.

The net revenue and the amounts paid into the Exchequer from the Post Office during 1909-10 were:—

| | Net. | | Payments into the Exchequer. |
|-------------------|--------------------|--------------|------------------------------|
| | £ | s. d. | £ |
| Postal receipts.. | 19,204,592 | 19 5 | 19,220,000 |
| Telegraph „ | 3,116,793 | 2 9 | 3,175,000 |
| Telephone „ | 1,939,365 | 9 8 | 1,955,000 |
| Total .. | £24,260,751 | 11 10 | £24,350,000 |

II.—Crown Lands.

| | £ | s. d. |
|---|-----------------|-------------|
| Rents, &c. | 607,310 | 13 9 |
| Sales of Timber, &c. | 44,802 | 10 10 |
| Miscellaneous | 25,901 | 12 1 |
| | £678,014 | 16 8 |
| Deduct salaries and allowances to officials (£19,249. 11s. 7d.) and payments for repairs, &c. (£140,631. 5s.) | 159,880 | 16 7 |
| | £518,134 | 0 1 |

£500,000 was paid into the Exchequer in the year.

* Old Age Pensions.

The remarkable effect of old-age pensions and the removal of the pauper disqualification is also further shown by the monthly returns of the total number of paupers, excluding lunatics, casuals, and outdoor medical relief cases, issued for 1911. Thus, to take a

III.—Receipts from Suez Canal Shares and Sundry Loans.

| | £ |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Suez Canal Shares | 1,129,260 |
| Cunard Steamship Co. interest | 63,914 |
| Greek Loan, 1832 | 7,913 |
| Fiji, Repayment of Advance | 5,000 |
| Crofters' Colonisation „ | 284 |
| Gold Coast „ | 20,000 |
| Wuchang Viceroy „ | 7,818 |
| Liberian Government, Interest | 161 |
| | £1,234,350 |

IV.—Miscellaneous Revenue.

| | £ |
|--|-------------------|
| Small Branches of Hereditary Revenue .. | 23,931 |
| Bank of England | 187,019 |
| Bankruptcy Act, 1883 | 23,150 |
| Companies (Consolidation) Act, 1908 .. | 6,241 |
| Trustee Savings Banks | 2,996 |
| Administration of Local Loans | 39,559 |
| Mint | 1,076,322 |
| Receipts by Civil Departments | 108,246 |
| Ordnance Factories Supplies Suspense Account | 35,909 |
| Saving on Grants of Parlt. &c., and Over-Issues Repaid | 14,518 |
| Isle of Man | 10,000 |
| Conscience Money | 1,307 |
| Casual Receipts | 40 |
| | 1,534,238 |
| Fec. &c., Stamps | 1,070,000 |
| Total Miscellaneous Revenue | £2,604,238 |

*Other than those appropriated in aid of votes.

typical month, August, the figures for various years are:—

| Total paupers. | | Ratio | Per 1,000 persons. | |
|----------------|---------|---------|--------------------|--------|
| | | Indoor. | Outdoor. | Total. |
| 1905 .. | 758,892 | 6·9 | 15·4 | 22·3 |
| 1909 .. | 780,302 | 7·4 | 14·6 | 22·0 |
| 1910 .. | 763,954 | 7·3 | 14·0 | 21·3 |
| 1911 .. | 638,867 | 7·0 | 10·7 | 17·7 |

*See also pages 255-6.

V.—NATIONAL EXPENDITURE IN DETAIL.

National expenditure is divided into two main classes, known as **Consolidated Fund Services and Supply Services**. The first consists of certain payments which have been fixed or regulated once for all by Act of Parliament, and form a first charge on the Consolidated Fund, i.e., the general fund of revenue from taxes and other receipts. Henceforward these payments only come before Parliament embodied in audited accounts and in

the annual Finance Accounts presented to the House. The second class consists of Army, Navy, Civil, and Post Office Services, and the cost of the Revenue Departments, which come before Parliament annually, first in the shape of estimates in great detail, which are considered and voted by the House of Commons and authorised by the Appropriation Act, and then again as audited accounts.

Consolidated Fund Services (1910-11).

I.—National Debt Services.

The principal item of Consolidated Fund Services is the cost in interest and sinking fund of the National Debt. Interest of Funded Debt, chiefly

| | |
|---|--------------------|
| Consols | £15,377,321 |
| Terminable Annuities, in lieu of debt cancelled | 3,481,490 |
| Interest of Unfunded Debt, Bills and Bonds | 1,353,178 |
| Management of the Debt | 175,050 |
| New Sinking Fund | 4,112,961 |
| | £24,500,000 |

The New Sinking Fund is included in the expenditure of the year in contrast to the Old Sinking Fund, which is the surplus of revenue, if any, after all the expenditure has been met.

The former must always be applied in reduction of the National Debt, the latter may be applied to other purposes, if a special Act be passed to that effect.

II.—Development and Road Funds.

| | |
|--|-------------------|
| Development Fund Grant | £500,000 |
| Road Improvement Fund— | |
| Net proceeds of Duties on Motor Spirit | £28,241 |
| Carriage Licences | 234,400 |
| | £1,362,641 |

III.—Local Taxation Accounts, &c.

The third division of Consolidated Fund Services is the expenditure in relief of Local Taxation, partly fixed grants and partly the equivalent of certain rates of duty collected.

| | |
|---|-------------------|
| Sundry Fixed Grants | £984,783 |
| Equivalent of— | |
| Customs and Excise, additional Beer and Spirit Duties | 1,420,577 |
| Certain Licences | 2,676,958 |
| Proportion of Estate Duties | 4,470,857 |
| Additional Grant under Revenue Act, 1911, for one year only | 328,534 |
| | £9,881,769 |

IV.—Other Services.

| | |
|---|----------|
| THE KING'S CIVIL LIST | £470,000 |
| ANNUITIES AND PENSIONS. | |
| Royal Family | £132,593 |
| Naval and Military | 18,720 |
| Lord Rodney, Earl Nelson, and five other Peers. | |
| Political and Civil | 13,933 |
| The late Speaker, &c. | |

| | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|
| Judicial | £50,616 |
| Lord Halsbury (£5,000). | |
| 12 Judges at £3,500 | |
| 7 County Court Judges at £1,000. | |
| Sundry Compensations | 4,924 |
| Scottish Judges, &c. | 17,215 |
| Irish Judges, &c. | 15,275 |
| Household Pensions of— | |
| King George IV. | 360 |
| King William IV. | 125 |
| Queen Victoria | 14,387 |
| King Edward VII. | 6,862 |
| Civil List Pensions | 24,963 |
| | £399,933 |

The Army, Navy, Civil, &c., Pensions are voted annually under the respective heads.

SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES.

| | |
|---|-----------------|
| Speaker of the House of Commons.. | £5,000 |
| Auditor General and Assistant..... | 3,500 |
| Scottish Clergy | 17,040 |
| Highland Schools | 899 |
| Clergy, West Indies | 498 |
| Inspectors of Anatomy | 1,277 |
| Copyright Compensations..... | 797 |
| Church of Scotland | 5,100 |
| Miscellaneous | 1,373 |
| Charges transferred from the Land Revenues of the Crown | 1,125 |
| Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland | 20,000 |
| | £256,609 |

This miscellaneous collection of charges were for the most part imposed prior to the reign of Queen Victoria, and some are expiring or being commuted.

COURTS OF JUSTICE.

| | |
|--|-----------------|
| 4 Lords of Appeal | £24,000 |
| Judicial Committee of Privy Council | 800 |
| Court of Appeal, 5 Judges | 25,000 |
| Master of the Rolls | 6,000 |
| Lord Chancellor (in addition to £4,000 as Speaker of the House of Lords) | 6,000 |
| 6 Chancery Judges | 30,000 |
| Lord Chief Justice | 8,000 |
| 17 King's Bench Judges | 77,038 |
| 2 Probate and Divorce Judges.... | 9,931 |
| 55 County Court Judges..... | 82,224 |
| 1 Magistrate, Chatham and Sheerness | 700 |
| 25 Metropolitan Magistrates | 37,687 |
| 13 Scottish Judges | 49,085 |
| Scottish Sheriffs, &c. | 55,416 |
| Lord Chancellor of Ireland | 6,000 |
| 13 Irish Judges | 49,613 |
| 4 Judicial Land Commissioners | 12,000 |
| Chairmen of Quarter Sessions, Ireland | 31,739 |
| Judges' Circuit Expenses..... | 3,000 |
| | £514,283 |

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES.

£323,499

Supply Services.

As estimates for all these services are presented to Parliament before the commencement of the year to which they relate the figures for the current year 1911-12 can be given. The Appropriation Act authorising expenditure within the estimated amounts was passed in August. This Act allows certain receipts to be "appropriated in aid" of the gross expenditure of individual departments, and grants the remainder, or net vote, from the Consolidated Fund. The receipts are in most cases cognate to the expenditure, and though financial purists object to the system of "appropriations in aid," it is reasonably justified, and the following net figures may be taken fairly to represent the expenditure.

I.—Army.

The British Army Estimates of 1911-12 amount to £27,690,000, and show a decrease of £70,000 on those of 1910-11.

There is a saving of £300,000 by the cessation of annuities in respect of the Barracks Loans, which have now been completely repaid, but against this amount must be set the increased cost of the Territorial force £106,000, the military expenditure on the Coronation £80,000, and £100,000 for the purchase of land which a few years ago would have been paid for from borrowed money.

The Estimates include under the Vote for Works and Buildings a sum of £866,500 for interest and repayment of principal of loans to meet capital expenditure in earlier years, and it is expected that further capital expenditure to the amount of £250,000 will occur this year. The true estimate of British Army expenditure is therefore £610,000 less than the apparent estimate.

ARMY ESTIMATES (1911-12).

| Vote. | Net Estimate. | + or - 1910-11. |
|--|---------------|-----------------|
| Number of men in the Regular Army, Home and Colonial, exclusive of India | 186,400 | + 2,200 |
| Effective Services. | £ | £ |
| Pay, &c., of the Army .. | 8,648,000 | - 85,000 |
| Medical Establishment .. | 437,000 | - 15,000 |
| Special Reserves | 742,000 | - 91,000 |
| Territorial Force | 2,766,000 | + 106,000 |
| Military Education | 147,000 | - |
| Quartering, Transports, Remounts | 1,641,000 | + 52,000 |
| Supplies and Clothing .. | 4,295,000 | - 102,000 |
| Ordnance Stores | 581,000 | + 48,000 |
| Armament and Engineer Stores | 1,472,000 | - 10,000 |
| Works and Buildings | 2,591,000 | - 7,000 |
| Misc. Effective Services .. | 73,000 | - 1,000 |
| Civil Superannuation | 436,000 | + 7,000 |
| Total | 23,829,000 | - 98,000 |
| Non-Effective Services. | | |
| Charges for Officers, &c. | 1,808,000 | + 19,000 |
| Charges for Men, &c. .. | 1,900,000 | + 10,000 |
| Civil Superannuation, &c. | 153,000 | - 1,000 |
| Total | 3,861,000 | + 28,000 |
| Grand Total | 27,690,000 | - 70,000 |

Receipts to the amount of £3,396,000 have been abated from the gross estimates to arrive at the above net figure; of these receipts the net sum of £1,719,000 is to be contributed by the Government of India for expenditure on her behalf.

II.—Navy.

The Navy Estimates for 1911-12 amount to £44,392,500, showing an increase of £3,788,800 over the previous year, of which nearly 2½ millions is for shipbuilding. There is no expenditure from borrowed money, but under the head of Works, Buildings, &c., is an annuity of £1,322,752 in repayment of such expenditure in earlier years, the true naval expenditure of the current year being less than the total estimate by this amount.

Estimated receipts amounting to £1,812,299 have been deducted from the gross estimates in arriving at the net figures below. Of this sum the following amounts are contributed by India and the Colonies:—

| | |
|--------------------|-----------|
| India | 211,900 |
| Australia | * 207,500 |
| New Zealand | * 100,000 |
| Cape Colony | 50,000 |
| Natal | 35,000 |
| Newfoundland | 3,000 |

£607,400

* These sums are of course exclusive of the expenditure on the two Colonial Dreadnoughts. (See Navy.)

| Vote. | Net Estimate. | Inc. or Dec. on 1910-11. |
|---|---------------|--------------------------|
| No. of Officers, Seamen, Boys, Coastguard and Royal Marines | 134,000 | + 3,000 |
| Effective Services. | | |
| Wages, &c., of the Navy | 7,511,500 | + 122,100 |
| Victualling & Clothing | 2,618,800 | + 118,500 |
| Medical Establishments | 270,900 | + 7,000 |
| Martial Law | 3,900 | - 7,000 |
| Educational Services .. | 150,500 | - 6,900 |
| Scientific Services | 72,000 | + 2,800 |
| Royal Naval Reserves | 388,000 | + 15,500 |
| Shipbuilding, Repairs and Maintenance : | | |
| I. Personnel | 3,541,500 | + 97,400 |
| II. Material | 4,955,400 | + 341,300 |
| III. Contract Work | 14,365,300 | + 1,969,900 |
| Naval Armaments | 3,721,000 | + 940,000 |
| Works, Buildings, &c. .. | 3,065,300 | + 70,000 |
| Miscellaneous Effective Services | 532,000 | + 73,000 |
| Admiralty Office | 406,400 | + 17,600 |
| Total | 41,602,500 | + 3,761,200 |
| Non-Effective Services. | | |
| Half-pay and Retired Pay | 926,300 | + 1,800 |
| Naval and Marine Pensions | 1,468,200 | + 37,800 |
| Civil Superannation, &c. | 395,500 | - 12,000 |
| Total | 2,790,000 | + 27,600 |
| Grand Total | 44,392,500 | + 3,788,800 |

National Expenditure in Detail—(con.).

III.—Civil Services.

The total estimate for 1911-12, including supplementaries voted in August, is **£47,311,584**, showing an increase of **£3,726,320** over the previous year, of which **£2,695,000** is due to Old Age Pensions. The estimates are divided into seven classes, according to the nature of the expenditure, and there are 113 separate votes, but four of these account for two-thirds of the total, and they are dealt with first in the following summary. The increases are as compared with 1910-11.

BOARD OF EDUCATION.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|---|--------------------|----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Administration | 202,422 | 2,277 |
| Inspection and Examination | 246,141 | — 1,680 |
| Elementary Schools | | |
| Grants | 11,390,535 | 79,355 |
| Special Grants in necessitous areas | 350,000 | 150,000 |
| Training of Teachers | 693,000 | 13,000 |
| Secondary Schools | | |
| Grants | 777,000 | 260 |
| Other Aided Schools and Classes | 656,775 | 64,500 |
| Imperial College of Science | 20,150 | — |
| Victoria and Albert Museum | 80,741 | 2,315 |
| Other Museums, &c. .. | 48,678 | 813 |
| | £14,375,442 | 810,140 |

PUBLIC EDUCATION.—SCOTLAND.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|-------------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Administration | 25,091 | 2,573 |
| Inspection | 41,846 | 167 |
| Elementary Schools | | |
| Grants | 1,877,811 | 65,629 |
| Secondary Schools, &c., | | |
| Grants | 204,000 | 16,800 |
| Royal Scot. Museum, &c. | 16,706 | 426 |
| Training of Teachers .. | 171,140 | — 2,726 |
| | £2,336,594 | 82,869 |

PUBLIC EDUCATION.—IRELAND.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|-------------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Administration | 27,975 | 388 |
| Inspection | 50,954 | — 370 |
| Training Colleges | 61,187 | 2,890 |
| National Schools Grants | 1,475,850 | — 3,020 |
| Other subheads | 40,558 | 79 |
| | £1,656,324 | — 1,143 |

OLD AGE PENSIONS.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Pensions | 12,350,000 | 2,730,000 |
| Expenses of Pension Committees | 65,000 | — 35,000 |
| | £12,415,000 | 2,695,000 |

having received poor relief at any time since 1st January, 1903.

In the succeeding lists of the smaller votes those of less than £100,000 in Classes I. to IV. have been given in one sum at the end of each class.

(1) PUBLIC WORKS AND BUILDINGS.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|---|-------------------|-----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Royal Parks, &c. | 133,600 | 5,725 |
| Revenue Buildings | 697,063 | — 53,437 |
| Labour Exchange Buildings | 140,000 | 9,000 |
| Public Buildings | 698,050 | — 28,900 |
| Surveys of United Kingdom | 187,344 | 5,452 |
| Harbours under the Board of Trade | 102,389 | 19,109 |
| Rates on Govt. Property .. | 730,000 | 54,300 |
| Public Works, &c., Ireland | 273,370 | 13,522 |
| 9 Other Votes | 514,880 | — 39,919 |
| | £3,466,896 | — 66,052 |

(2) SALARIES AND EXPENSES OF CIVIL DEPARTMENTS.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|---|-------------------|----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| House of Commons (Payment of Members) | 252,000 | 252,000 |
| Treasury, &c. | 105,738 | 535 |
| Home Office | 216,717 | 22,639 |
| Board of Trade | 520,716 | *70,726 |
| Mercantile Marine Services | 107,100 | 1,448 |
| Board of Agriculture, &c. | 194,914 | 9,201 |
| Local Government Board | 277,951 | 6,102 |
| Registrar-General's Office | 182,023 | †135,022 |
| Stationery and Printing .. | 793,650 | 54,054 |
| Office of Works | 125,930 | 20,320 |
| Department of Agriculture, Ireland | 426,609 | 10,253 |
| Local Govt. Bd., Ireland | 107,514 | 5,067 |
| 30 other Votes | 800,234 | 83,290 |
| | £4,141,096 | 670,660 |

* Labour Exchanges and Trade Boards.

† Expenses of the Census.

In the cases of the Mint and Bankruptcy Departments the gross estimate is over £100,000, but receipts more than meet the expenditure, and a nominal vote only is taken.

(3) LAW AND JUSTICE.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|--|-------------------|---------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Supreme Court | 331,524 | 806 |
| Police, England & Wales | 107,312 | — 3,000 |
| Prisons | 780,900 | — 2,177 |
| Reformatory, &c., Schools | 279,911 | — 2,901 |
| Supreme Court, &c., Ireland | 111,343 | 1,483 |
| Land Commission, Ireland | 544,395 | *89,229 |
| County Court Officers, Ireland | 110,645 | 20 |
| Royal Irish Constabulary | 1,381,732 | — 3,435 |
| Prisons, Ireland | 112,721 | 1,119 |
| Reformatory, &c., Schools, Ireland | 112,700 | — 100 |
| 13 other Votes | 658,676 | 8,259 |
| | £4,531,859 | 89,303 |

* Expenses under Irish Land Act.

The gross estimate for English County Courts is £503,559. but receipts cover the expenditure.

The bulk of this large increase is due to the inclusion for a whole year of the category of poor persons who prior to 1st January, 1911, were ineligible for pensions owing to their

(4) EDUCATION, SCIENCE, AND ART.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|---|-----------------|---------------|
| | £ | £ |
| British Museum | 183,271 | 7,376 |
| Universities and Colleges, Great Britain | 303,800 | 64,700 |
| Universities, &c., Ireland | 186,256 | 18,176 |
| 7 other Votes | 104,577 | -9,528 |
| | <u>£777,904</u> | <u>80,724</u> |

(5) FOREIGN AND COLONIAL SERVICES.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|--|-------------------|----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Diplomatic and Consular Services | 628,031 | 14,847 |
| Colonial Services | 1,379,739 | *101,980 |
| Telegraph Subsidies and Pacific Cable | 39,274 | -21,973 |
| Cyprus, Grant in Aid | 50,000 | 10,000 |
| | <u>£2,097,044</u> | <u>104,854</u> |

* Loan for railway to Nigerian tin fields.

(6) NON-EFFECTIVE AND CHARITABLE SERVICES.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|---|-----------------|----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Civil Superannuation, &c. Services | 774,763 | 6,165 |
| Miscellaneous Allowances Hospitals and Charities, Ireland | 1,449 | — |
| Savings Banks & Friendly Societies' Deficiencies.. | 16,913 | -28 |
| | <u>36,491</u> | <u>-20,570</u> |
| | <u>£820,616</u> | <u>-23,433</u> |

(7) MISCELLANEOUS.

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|
| | £ | £ |
| Temporary Commissions | 33,000 | -6,000 |
| Miscellaneous Expenses | 9,553 | -1,501 |
| Repayments to Local Loans Fund | 2,395 | -17 |
| Ireland Development Grant | 185,000 | -6,558 |
| Government Hospitality | 10,000 | — |
| International Exhibitions | 35,700 | -18,550 |
| Repayments to Civil Con- tingencies Fund | 3,361 | -9,786 |
| Unemployed Grant | 100,000 | — |
| Coronation of His Majesty Their Majesties' Visit to India | 185,000 | 185,000 |
| Votes disappeared | 120,000 | 120,000 |
| | <u>—</u> | <u>-480,500</u> |
| | <u>£684,009</u> | <u>-217,912</u> |

The foregoing review of national finance such a short space, but the stable character upheaval, ensures that the main outlines remain generally true from year to year. It should be possible, therefore, from the summary of Liberal Finance, aided by the Budget sections and the detail of revenue and expenditure sketched above, to approach this large subject with sufficient groundwork to form an opinion on the progress of National Finance from time to time.

IV.—Revenue Departments.

The estimate for the Customs and Excise Department for 1911-12 amounts to £2,371,400, an increase over the previous year of about £155,000, chiefly for Old Age Pensions expenses, and an improvement in the pay of some grades of the staff.

The Inland Revenue Department estimate is £1,714,000 showing a decrease of £73,000 from the previous year, due to the cessation of some of the initial expenses of the Land Valuation.

When it is remembered that the amount of revenue to be collected is £152,000,000, the costs of collection in the two departments will not be considered excessive.

Post Office.

The total estimate of £21,082,445 for the Post Office for 1911-12 shows an increase of £1,254,189 under the following heads:—

| | Estimate. | Increase. |
|--------------------------|------------|-----------|
| | £ | £ |
| Postal Services | 14,104,420 | 249,911 |
| Telegraph Services | 4,083,645 | 169,451 |
| Telephone Services | 2,894,380 | 834,827 |

The Savings Bank Department is additional, the whole expense, £657,765, being met from relative funds in the hands of the National Debt Commissioners (but see Vote for Deficiency under Civil, Class VI.). Nearly the whole of the increase under telephones is due to the purchase of the National Telephone Company's business on 1st January, 1912.

Of the total expenditure the principal head is for salaries and wages £13,240,345, other large items are the conveyance of mails £2,768,285 and the engineering establishment £1,933,275.

Capital expenditure on the Telephones is met from loan, the estimated borrowing for the current year being £1,150,000, but the true total expenditure does not differ appreciably from the voted estimate, as the latter figure includes £914,951 for interest and repayment of former borrowings.

Though the expenditure for the Post Office Services is seen to be immense, the receipts are greater by over four millions, and bearing in mind the cheapness of most postal rates it can be reasonably concluded that the business is economically managed.

can but be of a cursory description within of British National Finance, failing a fiscal

The Public Trustee.—The office of Public Trustee, created only four years ago, has rapidly won its way in the public esteem. In the first year of its existence the trusts which it administered amounted to £2,095,900; in 1910-11 they had risen to £8,880,252. During the 15 months ending March, 1911, the Public Trustee was able to maintain a return of income of over 4 per cent. in cases where the provisions of the trust gave reasonable discretion. The largest

holdings of funds by the Public Trustee at the end of 1910-11 were: Home Railways, £2,923,233; Colonial Government Securities and Colonial and Foreign Municipal Stock, £1,896,705; British Funds, £1,404,060; British Municipal Stock, £958,584; Colonial Railways, £930,545. The number of small estates administered under the Act has increased, but the poorer classes of the community have not so far availed themselves to any considerable extent of the skilled assistance offered them.

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SECTION IV.—TRADE & COMMERCE

Trade, Commerce, and Condition

RETURN FOR THE UNITED KINGDOM FOR EACH OF THE YEARS 1831, 1841, 1851, 1861,
PARTICULARS SO FAR

A RETURN PRESENTED BY THE COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT

| Year. | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | | | |
|-------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|--|--|--|---------------------------------|----------|----|
| | Population (Millions) | Death Rate per Thousand. | Birth Rate per Thousand. | Paupers, Total Average Number, Indoor and Outdoor. | Number of Paupers per 10,000 of the Popula- tion. | Total Cost of Poor Relief. | Net Passenger Movement outwards to Places out of Europe. | | | |
| | | | | | | | Of British Nation- ality. | Of Foreign Nation- ality. | Total. | |
| | | | | Average Number. | | 1,000 £'s. | Numbers | Numbers | Numbers | |
| 1831 | 24.0 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | 1 |
| 1841 | 26.7 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | 2 |
| 1851 | 27.4 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | 3 |
| 1861 | 29.0 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | 4 |
| 1871 | 31.6 | 21.5 | 33.8 | 1,054,099 | 364 | 7,058 | * | * | * | 5 |
| 1881 | 34.9 | 18.7 | 32.5 | 1,237,353 | 393 | 9,558 | * | * | 198,608† | 6 |
| 1891 | 37.8 | 20.0 | 30.4 | 1,010,473 | 290 | 10,155 | 190,295 | 119,983 | 315,409† | 7 |
| 1901 | 41.6 | 17.1 | 28.0 | 955,843 | 253 | 10,566 | 115,470 | 65,078 | 183,174† | 8 |
| 1906 | 43.7 | 15.6 | 26.8 | 979,600 | 236 | 13,873 | 72,016 | 63,618 | 137,557† | 9 |
| 1907 | 44.1 | 15.4 | 26.0 | 1,113,583 | 255 | 16,742 | 194,671 | 133,878 | 327,572† | 10 |
| 1908 | 44.5 | 15.2 | 26.3 | 1,102,611 | 250 | 16,668 | 235,092 | 109,857 | 341,316† | 11 |
| 1909 | 45.0 | 14.8 | 25.5 | 1,110,539 | 249 | 17,103 | 91,156 | 47,667†† | 43,489 | 12 |
| 1910 | 45.5 | 13.9 | 24.7 | 1,132,908 | 252 | 17,588 | 139,693 | 73,360 | 213,053 | 13 |
| | | | | 1,129,165 | 248 | †† | 233,944 | 85,942 | 319,886 | 14 |

| Year. | (15) Total Quantity of Home- grown and Imported Wheat and Wheat- flour retained for Home Con- sumption | (16) Con- sumption of Wheat and Wheat- flour per Head of Popula- tion. | (17) Value of Fish of British Taking landed on the Coasts of the United Kingdom. | (18) Net Imports of Merchandise (deducting Re-exports). | | (19) Exports of the Produce and Manufactures of the United Kingdom. | | (20) Imports of Bullion and Specie. | (21) Exports of Bullion and Specie. |
|-------|--|--|--|---|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| | | | | Total Value. | Value per Head of Population. | Total Value. | Value per Head of Population. | | |
| | | | | \$ | \$ | \$ | \$ | \$ | \$ |
| | | Million Cwts. | Cwts. | 1,000 £'s | 1,000 £'s | £ s. d. | 1,000 £'s | £ s. d. | 1,000 £'s |
| 1831 | * | * | * | * | * | 37,164 | 1 10 11 | * | * |
| 1841 | * | * | * | * | * | 51,545 | 1 18 6 | * | 3,960† |
| 1851 | * | * | * | * | * | 74,448 | 2 14 4 | * | 9,059† |
| 1861 | * | * | * | 182,955 | 6 6 6 | 125,102 | 4 6 5 | 18,747 | 20,811 |
| 1871 | * | * | * | 270,506 | 8 11 10 | 223,066 | 7 1 7 | 33,140 | 33,760 |
| 1881 | 107.0 | 3.1 | * | 333,962 | 9 11 6 | 234,022 | 6 14 0 | 16,864 | 22,502 |
| 1891 | 128.4 | 3.4 | 7,009 | 373,562 | 9 18 3 | 247,235 | 6 10 10 | 39,591 | 37,228 |
| 1901 | 128.0 | 3.1 | 9,542 | 454,148 | 10 19 1 | 280,022† | 6 14 9† | 32,217 | 26,015 |
| 1906 | 143.0 | 3.3 | 11,389 | 522,786 | 11 19 6 | 375,575† | 8 12 0† | 63,331 | 61,483 |
| 1907 | 143.4 | 3.3 | 11,718 | 553,866 | 12 11 2 | 426,035† | 9 13 3† | 73,072 | 67,787 |
| 1908 | 134.4 | 3.0 | 10,966 | 533,330 | 11 10 6 | 377,104† | 8 9 4† | 56,472 | 63,253 |
| 1909 | 144.6 | 3.2 | 11,085 | 533,360 | 11 17 0 | 378,180† | 8 8 1† | 66,507 | 60,035 |
| 1910 | 147.4 | 3.2 | 11,659 | 574,664 | 12 12 9 | 430,590† | 9 9 5† | 71,422 | 64,369 |

Note.—The figures for 1910 printed in heavy type

* Cannot be given owing to the non-existence or incompleteness or other defects of the various statistical returns in the years indicated.

† Includes a few passengers whose nationality was not distinguished.

‡ Declared values throughout, unless otherwise indicated.

|| Computed real values in these years.

†† Includes the value of Ships and Boats (new) and their Machinery exported. These particulars were not recorded in the Official Trade Accounts until 1899.

††† Net movement inward from non-European countries.

ADVANCE IN 70 YEARS. of the United Kingdom.

1871, 1881, 1891, 1901, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, and 1910, SHOWING the following
as AVAILABLE.
OF THE BOARD OF TRADE, APRIL, 1911.

| | (8) Average Gazette Price per Quarter of Wheat, Barley, and Oats. | | | (9) Average Price of Beef at the Metropolitan Cattle Market. Per Stone of 8 lbs. (sinking the Offal). | | | (10) Total Value of the Imports of Grain, Corn, and Flour. | (11) Total Value of the Imports of Meat, Alive and Dead. | (12) Total Value of the Imports of Food and Drink (exclusive of Tobacco). | (13) Totl. Val. of the Imports of Food & Drink (excl'sive of Tobac- co) from British Colonies and Pos- sessions. | (14) Total Value of the Im- ports of Food and Drink (ex- clusive of Tobacco) per Head of Popula- tion. | Year. |
|----|--|---------|-------|--|--------------------|----------------------|--|--|--|--|---|-------|
| | Wheat. | Barley. | Oats. | First Quality. | Second Quality. | Interior Quality. | \$ | \$ | \$ | \$ | \$ | |
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | 1,000 £'s. | 1,000 £'s. | 1,000 £'s. | 1,000 £'s. | £ s. d. | |
| 1 | 66 4 | 38 0 | 25 4 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | 1831 |
| 2 | 64 4 | 32 10 | 22 5 | 4 2½ | 3 9 | 3 4½ | * | * | * | * | * | 1841 |
| 3 | 38 6 | 24 9 | 18 7 | 3 2½ | 2 9½ | 2 5½ | * | * | * | * | * | 1851 |
| 4 | 55 4 | 36 1 | 23 9 | 4 6 | 4 0 | 3 3½ | 37,383½ | 4,246½ | 83,922½ | 17,034½ | 2 18 0½ | 1861 |
| 5 | 56 8 | 36 2 | 25 2 | 5 4½ | 4 10½ | 3 11½ | 45,601 | 10,713 | 123,931 | 21,853 | 3 18 9 | 1871 |
| 6 | 45 4 | 31 11 | 21 9 | 5 6 | 5 1 | 4 5 | 65,570 | 25,212 | 175,694 | 31,243 | 5 0 9 | 1881 |
| 7 | 37 0 | 28 2 | 20 0 | 4 11 | 4 4 | 2 9 | 66,317 | 29,851 | 184,885 | 35,965 | 4 18 0 | 1891 |
| 8 | 26 3 | 25 2 | 18 5 | 4 7 | 3 11 | 2 4 | 65,209 | 50,390 | 220,016 | 41,388 | 5 6 2 | 1901 |
| 9 | 28 3 | 24 2 | 18 4 | 4 7 | 3 6 | 2 9 | 67,881 | 52,026 | 233,439 | 56,250 | 5 6 11 | 1906 |
| 10 | 30 7 | 25 1 | 18 10 | 4 8 | 3 7 | 2 9 | 73,409 | 51,888 | 243,075 | 61,583 | 5 10 3 | 1907 |
| 11 | 32 0 | 25 10 | 17 10 | 4 9 | 3 9 | 2 8 | 72,733 | 49,448 | 238,967 | 51,603 | 5 7 3 | 1908 |
| 12 | 36 11 | 26 10 | 18 11 | 4 11 | 4 2 | 2 10 | 83,107 | 47,623 | 249,333 | 63,766 | 5 10 10 | 1909 |
| 13 | 31 8 | 23 1 | 17 4 | 5 1 | 4 5 | 2 11 | 77,298 | 48,879 | 253,164 | 71,076 | 5 11 4 | 1910 |

| | (22) Income Tax, Yield of each Penny (Years commencing 6th April). | (23) Gross Income brought under Income Tax (Years com- mencing 6th April) | (24) Amount standing to Credit of Depositors in Post Office and Trustee Savings Banks. ** | (25) Consump- tion of Pig Iron per head of Popula- tion. | (26) Total Registered Tonnage of British Shipping. | (27) Tonnage of British Shipping entered and cleared in the Foreign Trade at Ports in the United Kingdom. | (28) Tonnage of Foreign Shipping entered and cleared in the Foreign Trade at Ports in the United Kingdom. | (29) Total Clearings at the London Bankers' Clearing House. | Year. |
|----|--|---|---|--|---|---|---|--|-------|
| | £ | Million £ | 1,000 £'s | Tons _z | Tons (net). | Tons (net). | Tons (net). | Million £ | |
| 1 | * | — | 13,719 | * | 2,224,356 | 4,668,053 | 1,770,656 | * | 1831 |
| 2 | * | — | 25,782 | * | 2,935,399 | 6,790,490 | 2,628,057 | * | 1841 |
| 3 | * | — | 30,278 | * | 3,662,344 | 9,820,876 | 6,159,322 | * | 1851 |
| 4 | 1,162,250 | 352§§ | 41,533 | 0·11 | 4,806,826 | 15,420,532 | 11,175,109 | * | 1861 |
| 5 | 1,654,277 | 482§§ | 55,845 | 0·11 | 5,694,123 | 28,034,748 | 13,513,180 | 4,826 | 1871 |
| 6 | 1,915,683 | 601§§ | 81,198 | 0·19 | 6,691,996 | 41,543,259 | 16,406,286 | 6,357 | 1881 |
| 7 | 2,238,130 | 678 | 120,854 | 0·18 | 8,279,297 | 53,957,435 | 20,855,185 | 6,848 | 1891 |
| 8 | 2,531,462 | 867 | 206,810 | 0·18 | 9,608,420 | 62,270,021 | 34,409,873 | 9,561 | 1901 |
| 9 | 2,666,867 | 944 | 230,362 | 0·20 | 11,167,332 | 76,465,979 | 44,324,331 | 12,711 | 1906 |
| 10 | 2,698,000 | 980 | 232,669 | 0·19 | 11,485,089 | 81,308,442 | 51,963,278 | 12,730 | 1907 |
| 11 | 2,784,000 | 1,010 | 235,439 | 0·18 | 11,541,304 | 77,869,772 | 58,576,424 | 12,120 | 1908 |
| 12 | †† | †† | 240,919 | 0·19 | 11,585,878 | 79,763,971 | 53,503,711 | 13,525 | 1909 |
| 13 | †† | †† | †† | †† | 11,555,663 | 79,823,681 | 54,223,553 | 14,659 | 1910 |

are provisional and subject to correction.

** Trustee Savings Banks only 1831-1861. The Post Office Savings Bank commenced operations in 1864. The particulars included for the Post Office Savings Bank relate to calendar years, and those for Trustee Savings Banks to years ended 20th November. The figures for 1881 and subsequent years include the Government stock held for depositors.

†† Not yet available.

§§ Described as Total Annual Value of Property and Profits assessed to Income Tax.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1910. Foreign Trade Aggregates £1,100 Millions Sterling.

| Articles. | Imports. (Value C.I.F.) | Increase or Decrease in 1910. | Exports. (Domestic Value F.O.B.) | Increase or Decrease in 1910. | Re- Exports. | Increase or Decrease in 1910. |
|---|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------|
| I.—Food, Drink, and Tobacco : | | | | | | |
| A. Grain and Flour | 77,298,383 | — 5,809,038 | 3,416,637 | — 17,633 | 1,465,720 | — 49,756 |
| B. Meat, including Animals for Food | 48,878,947 | + 1,255,519 | 935,958 | + 138,755 | 814,724 | + 49,923 |
| C. Other Food and Drink :— | | | | | | |
| (1) Non-dutiable | 72,229,940 | + 4,380,954 | 19,675,550 | + 2,214,134 | 4,478,058 | + 243,280 |
| (2) Dutiable | 54,649,536 | + 3,896,651 | 2,042,593 | + 364,325 | 5,847,727 | + 636,647 |
| D. Tobacco | 4,624,782 | + 361,881 | | | 267,746 | + 3,047 |
| Total Class I. | 257,681,588 | + 3,362,205 | 26,070,738 | + 2,734,847 | 12,873,975 | + 873,713 |
| II.—Raw Materials & Articles mainly Unmanufactured : | | | | | | |
| A. Coal, Coke and Manuf. Fuel | 34,119 | + 25,822 | 37,813,360 | + 683,382 | 174 | — 122 |
| B. Iron, Ore, Scrap Iron, and Steel | 6,261,471 | + 1,185,840 | 476,863 | — 32,895 | 11,737 | + 2,708 |
| C. Other Metallic Ores | 8,970,272 | + 643,979 | 71,791 | + 23,762 | 546,902 | + 115,979 |
| D. Wood and Timber | 26,207,329 | + 2,615,750 | 129,280 | + 20,617 | 814,017 | + 121,918 |
| E. Cotton | 71,711,908 | + 11,510,859 | | | 9,810,161 | + 2,020,657 |
| F. Wool | 37,332,470 | + 2,290,704 | 4,220,443 | + 423,122 | 14,628,144 | + 1,539,055 |
| G. Other Textile Materials | 12,803,327 | + 675,620 | 323,536 | + 109,285 | 2,367,177 | + 71,767 |
| H. Oil, Fats, and Gums | 37,548,960 | + 6,509,077 | 5,023,499 | + 1,622,733 | 7,375,488 | + 1,776,936 |
| I. Hides and Undressed Skins | 12,882,328 | + 1,264,570 | 1,757,762 | + 158,872 | 7,067,831 | + 70,283 |
| J. Paper-making Materials | 4,972,487 | + 473,206 | 744,278 | + 66,229 | 188,405 | + 70,727 |
| K. Miscellaneous | 42,450,959 | + 13,930,105 | 2,767,460 | + 313,680 | 19,980,018 | + 6,205,417 |
| Total Class II. | 261,175,628 | + 41,030,132 | 53,328,232 | + 2,172,275 | 63,310,059 | + 8,911,799 |
| III.—Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured : | | | | | | |
| A. Iron and Steel | 9,086,214 | + 1,114,620 | 42,976,671 | + 4,784,529 | 324,606 | + 60,338 |
| B. Other Metals | 24,699,194 | + 352,866 | 10,352,354 | + 1,643,409 | 7,345,803 | + 1,395,702 |
| C. Cutlery, Hardware, and Instruments | 4,673,473 | + 954,424 | 6,423,695 | + 1,011,043 | 746,470 | + 94,719 |
| D. Electrical Goods and Apparatus* | 1,686,540 | + 364,031 | 4,102,602 | + 1,871,803 | 205,033 | + 76,725 |
| E. Machinery | 4,470,898 | + 32,562 | 29,271,380 | + 1,213,737 | 941,155 | + 381,584 |
| F. Ships (new) | 27,104 | + 3,178 | 8,770,204 | + 2,843,090 | 1,619 | + 1,426 |
| G. Wood and Timber (including Furniture) | 2,338,472 | + 284,214 | 1,835,762 | + 384,689 | 246,960 | + 44,802 |
| H. Yarns and Textile Fabrics :— | | | | | | |
| (1) Cotton | 10,874,628 | + 1,035,537 | 105,871,208 | + 12,426,409 | 2,374,626 | + 192,121 |
| (2) Wool | 9,599,286 | + 128,474 | 37,516,397 | + 6,844,563 | 1,174,488 | + 9,731 |
| (3) Silk | 13,521,021 | + 2,278,943 | 2,278,943 | + 418,964 | 1,965,826 | + 172,505 |
| (4) Other Materials | 8,054,667 | + 729,791 | 13,431,198 | + 1,039,673 | 2,685,863 | + 660,607 |

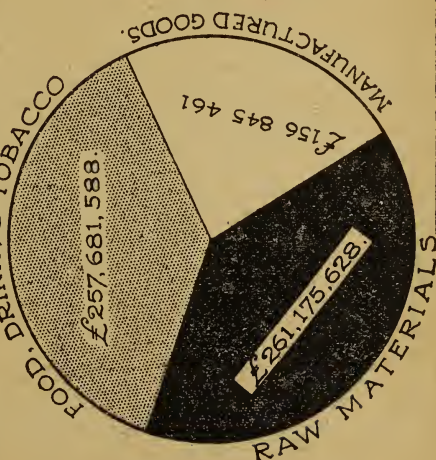
| | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|---|------------|-------------|---|------------|-------------|------------|
| J. Chemicals, Drugs, Dyes, and Colours | 11,259,685 | + | 663,092 | 18,568,136 | + | 1,785,117 | 1,939,826 | 107,804 |
| K. Leather (incl. Gloves; excl. Boots and Shoes) .. | 11,824,741 | + | 207,611 | 4,686,485 | + | 444,129 | 2,216,834 | 273,468 |
| L. Earthenware and Glass | 3,816,971 | + | 59,582 | 4,352,059 | + | 664,810 | 205,585 | 89,803 |
| M. Paper | 6,413,718 | + | 766,281 | 3,122,699 | + | 563,328 | 232,312 | 38,116 |
| N. Railway Carriages and Trucks, Motor Cars, Cycles, Carts, &c. | 5,603,149 | + | 912,368 | 7,449,977 | + | 1,286,207 | 574,040 | 127,200 |
| O. Miscellaneous | 23,788,385 | + | 1,026,540 | 29,091,840 | + | 3,991,737 | 3,300,516 | 125,155 |
| Total Class III. | 156,845,461 | + | 9,174,367 | 342,869,197 | + | 46,110,729 | 27,342,345 | 2,669,603 |
| IV.—Miscellaneous & Unclassified (including Parcel Post) | 2,554,347 | — | 14,637 | 8,116,555 | + | 1,186,574 | 234,666 | 38,894 |
| Total | 678,257,024 | + | 53,552,067 | 430,384,772 | + | 52,204,425 | 103,761,045 | 12,416,226 |

* Other than Machinery and Telegraph and Telephone Wire. Imports and Exports of Gold and Silver Bullion will be found on the next page.

IMPORTS—£678,257,024.

EXPORTS—£430,384,772.

RE-EXPORTS—£103,761,045.



BRITISH TRADE IN 1911.

The year 1910 created a record in the external trade of the United Kingdom, and the export trade continued to expand in the first half of 1911. Even in June, when the Coronation caused a diminution in the number of working days, the export trade continued to advance. Exports were 3·8 per cent. heavier than in June, 1910. The decline in August was felt in imports, exports, and re-exports, and was sufficiently accounted for by the labour disturbances. The re-export trade, dependent largely on dock labour, fell 17 per cent. that month. The decline in imports in the first half of the year amounting altogether to £4,486,000 was apparent rather than real, and was due chiefly to the decline in the excessive prices reached in 1910 by two commodities, rubber and wheat.

| Jan.—June. | | |
|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1910 | | |
| Quantity. | Value. | |
| Rubber | 302,499 cwt. | £16,280,980 |
| Wheat | 50,731,400 „ | 22,153,145 |

| Jan.—June. | | |
|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1911 | | |
| Quantity. | Value. | |
| Rubber | 467,383 cwt. | £10,415,368 |
| Wheat | 44,689,538 „ | 17,469,653 |

Rubber, it will be seen, decreased nearly 60 per cent. in price, wheat over 12 per cent. On the other hand, cotton, which showed only a small difference in price was responsible for an increase in value of £10,866,018.

We append a summary of the monthly statement of trade in 1910 and 1911, which allows of a comparison month by month.

BRITISH AND IRISH FOREIGN TRADE IN 1911.

(In thousand £, 000's omitted.)

| | Imports. | | Exports, British | | Exports, Foreign and Colonial. | | Total Exports. | |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | 1910 thou. £ | 1911 thou. £ | 1910 thou. £ | 1911 thou. £ | 1910 thou. £ | 1911 thou. £ | 1910 thou. £ | 1911 thou. £ |
| January | 55,910 | 62,695 | 34,803 | 37,731 | 8,147 | 8,641 | 42,950 | 46,372 |
| February | 51,151 | 56,069 | 31,692 | 35,653 | 10,185 | 9,994 | 41,876 | 45,647 |
| March | 58,109 | 58,543 | 34,392 | 40,864 | 8,444 | 9,175 | 42,836 | 50,039 |
| April | 59,556 | 51,851 | 35,292 | 35,692 | 11,859 | 9,489 | 47,151 | 45,181 |
| May | 55,230 | 53,930 | 33,607 | 37,615 | 8,294 | 8,835 | 41,902 | 46,450 |
| June | 54,630 | 51,106 | 34,800 | 36,113 | 8,384 | 8,753 | 43,183 | 44,867 |
| July | 49,374 | 51,064 | 38,388 | 34,608 | 8,222 | 8,179 | 46,610 | 42,786 |
| August | 52,019 | 50,606 | 38,639 | 36,083 | 8,099 | 6,649 | 46,739 | 42,732 |
| September | 51,547 | 53,701 | 36,964 | 36,819 | 6,808 | 7,818 | 43,772 | — |
| October | 58,011 | — | 37,691 | — | 8,000 | — | 45,691 | — |
| November | 64,090 | — | 36,897 | — | 7,459 | — | 44,356 | — |
| December | 69,110 | — | 37,424 | — | 9,877 | — | 47,301 | — |
| Corrected total for year | 678,257 | — | 430,385 | — | 103,761 | — | 534,145 | — |

Direction of British Trade.

| | Imports to U.K., Jan.- June, 1911. | Increase or Decrease over 1910. | Exports fr'm U.K. (domestic) Jan.- June, 1911. | Increase or Decrease over 1910. |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|---|
| | (Thou. £.) | (Thou. £.) | (Thou. £.) | (Thou. £.) |
| Germany | 32,664 | +2,043 | 18,718 | +1,669 |
| France | 21,498 | -1,671 | 12,669 | +1,626 |
| Egypt | 12,993 | +4,302 | 5,182 | +1,144 |
| Japan | 1,609 | -1,198 | 6,872 | +1,828 |
| China | 2,256 | -666 | 6,263 | +1,746 |
| United States .. | 52,145 | +7,437 | 13,579 | -2,004 |
| Brazil | 6,545 | -5,359 | 5,932 | -1,278 |
| Argentina | 15,571 | +2,313 | 9,306 | -393 |
| British India .. | 18,753 | -1,118 | 25,169 | +3,582 |
| New Zealand .. | 13,143 | -1,632 | 4,544 | +789 |
| Canada | 8,481 | -2,118 | 9,464 | -47 |
| Australia | 21,539 | +141 | 14,608 | +1,884 |
| Foreign countries .. | 250,806 | 4,486 | 147,508 | 11,168 |
| British possessions .. | 83,318 | -4,815 | 76,161 | 7,915 |
| *Total | 334,124 | -329 | 223,668 | 19,083 |

* All countries.

Trade of Foreign Rivals.

| IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE OF THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES. | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------|------------|------------|------------------------|------------|------------|
| Country. | Imports (Home consumption). | | | Exports (Domestic). | | |
| | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 |
| | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ |
| Germany .. | 376·9 | 419·2 | 439·3 | 314·6 | 324·2 | 367·5 |
| Belgium .. | — | 144·2 | 162·6 | — | 110·2 | 133·3 |
| France ... | 225·6 | 219·8 | 270·4 | 202·0 | 228·7 | 240·2 |
| Switzerland .. | 59·5 | 64·1 | 69·8 | 41·5 | 43·9 | 47·8 |
| Spain | 38·9 | 38·0 | 39·6 | 35·0 | 36·4 | 37·9 |
| Russia ... | 80·2 | 83·0 | 100·6 | 99·1 | 144·3 | 146·1 |
| Italy | 116·5 | 124·4 | 128·2 | 69·2 | 74·7 | 80·3 |
| Austria- Hungary .. | 99·9 | 114·4 | 118·9 | 94·0 | 96·6 | 100·8 |
| United States ... | 232·6 | 307·4 | 325·6 | 360·1 | 354·3 | 380·7 |
| Japan | 44·4 | 40·1 | 47·3 | 38·3 | 41·9 | 46·5 |
| United Kingdom .. | 513·3 | 533·4 | 574·7 | 737·1 | 1378·2 | 430·6 |

OUR BEST CUSTOMERS.

From the figures it will be seen that the largest markets for the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom are found in India, Germany, the United States, Australia, France, South Africa, Canada, the Argentine, and Brazil. The United States with exports to this country amounting to £106,282,000 is easily first among the countries from whom we obtain supplies of food and raw materials. Food and drink come to us in the largest quantities from the United States, Russia, Denmark, the Argentine, India, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, France, and Holland.

A=Food, Drink, and Tobacco. B=Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured. C=Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured. D=Total, including Miscellaneous and Unclassified.

| Foreign Countries and British Poss. | IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM. | | | | EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM. | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| | The figures in italics represent the totals retained for Home Consumption. | | | | Domestic. | | | | Foreign and Col. |
| | A Thous. £. 000's omit. | B Thous. £. 000's omit. | C Thous. £. 000's omit. | D Thous. £. 000's omit. | A Thous. £. 000's omit. | B Thous. £. 000's omit. | C Thous. £. 000's omit. | D Thous. £. 000's omit. | |
| Russia | 25,024 | 17,000 | 1,535 | 43,645 <i>42,097</i> | 1,349 | 3,000 | 7,741 | 12,253 | 8,968 |
| Sweden | 2,345 | 6,278 | 3,191 | 11,825 <i>11,440</i> | 565 | 2,665 | 3,405 | 6,698 | 1,085 |
| Norway | 1,204 | 3,551 | 1,858 | 6,631 <i>5,951</i> | 480 | 1,194 | 2,302 | 4,033 | 507 |
| Denmark | 18,968 | 258 | 227 | 19,464 <i>19,248</i> | 463 | 1,670 | 3,214 | 5,426 | 545 |
| Germany | 11,707 | 5,946 | 43,617 | 61,830 <i>58,105</i> | 3,017 | 7,048 | 26,010 | 37,021 | 17,885 |
| Holland | 12,662 | 2,264 | 3,470 | 18,528 <i>17,979</i> | 1,300 | 2,282 | 8,747 | 12,695 | 5,175 |
| Belgium | 2,075 | 3,518 | 13,467 | 19,196 <i>18,375</i> | 1,039 | 1,898 | 7,418 | 10,887 | 6,952 |
| France | 10,937 | 6,713 | 26,059 | 44,283 <i>38,519</i> | 1,055 | 6,271 | 14,408 | 22,463 | 10,992 |
| Switzerland .. | 1,572 | 37 | 8,199 | 9,813 <i>7,943</i> | 27 | 37 | 3,153 | 3,371 | 546 |
| Spain | 5,021 | 6,019 | 2,887 | 13,928 <i>13,042</i> | 173 | 1,450 | 3,207 | 4,893 | 522 |
| Italy | 2,139 | 1,327 | 2,878 | 6,459 <i>5,757</i> | 282 | 5,975 | 5,922 | 12,531 | 1,937 |
| Austria | 4,851 | 253 | 2,404 | 7,512 <i>7,088</i> | 36 | 714 | 3,080 | 4,001 | 1,123 |
| Egypt | 613 | 20,003 | 373 | 21,004 <i>16,412</i> | 376 | 1,838 | 6,378 | 8,717 | 165 |
| China (exclud. Hong Kong) | 1,044 | 3,406 | 1,071 | 5,530 <i>3,783</i> | 751 | 128 | 8,240 | 9,173 | 145 |
| Japan | 173 | 1,654 | 2,489 | 4,327 <i>3,654</i> | 102 | 113 | 9,814 | 10,122 | 267 |
| United States | 36,135 | 61,847 | 19,342 | 117,607 <i>106,282</i> | 2,083 | 4,254 | 24,745 | 31,447 | 30,735 |
| Chile | 871 | 3,300 | 1,011 | 5,182 <i>4,464</i> | 135 | 772 | 4,532 | 5,480 | 327 |
| Brazil | 1,599 | 15,856 | 41 | 17,497 <i>8,084</i> | 267 | 1,525 | 14,612 | 16,427 | 393 |
| Argentine | 24,700 | 4,084 | 201 | 29,010 <i>27,803</i> | 354 | 2,289 | 16,221 | 19,097 | 613 |
| S. Africa* | 715 | 8,954 | 707 | 10,404 <i>4,690</i> | 1,529 | 255 | 17,972 | 20,246 | 1,789 |
| India | 16,958 | 19,332 | 6,344 | 42,764 <i>31,793</i> | 1,695 | 497 | 43,294 | 45,999 | 1,034 |
| Str. Settlements. | 947 | 4,081 | 6,545 | 11,585 <i>4,447</i> | 454 | 43 | 3,608 | 4,143 | 103 |
| Ceylon, &c. .. | 3,953 | 1,901 | 117 | 5,987 <i>3,031</i> | 215 | 259 | 1,795 | 2,322 | 134 |
| Australia | 15,227 | 20,476 | 2,845 | 38,584 <i>25,334</i> | 1,989 | 332 | 24,999 | 27,652 | 3,420 |
| New Zealand | 9,068 | 11,827 | 37 | 20,943 <i>17,122</i> | 662 | 139 | 7,670 | 8,653 | 750 |
| Canada | 19,291 | 4,890 | 1,353 | 25,635 <i>24,696</i> | 1,392 | 512 | 17,083 | 19,645 | 2,970 |
| †Total—Foreign | 186,509 | 181,140 | 138,124 | 507,807 <i>453,393</i> | 15,745 | 50,107 | 212,230 | 283,082 | 91,661 |
| †British Poss. | 71,172 | 80,035 | 18,721 | 170,450 <i>120,676</i> | 10,326 | 3,221 | 130,639 | 147,303 | 12,100 |
| Total all countries | 257,682 | 261,176 | 156,845 | 678,257 <i>574,496</i> | 26,071 | 53,328 | 342,869 | 430,385 | 103,761 |

* Diamonds are excluded. The value of Diamonds declared for Export in 1910 was £8,480,875.

† These totals include imports and exports from countries not included in the table.

GREAT BRITAIN'S TRADE RIVALS.

A comparison of the total figures for the six months ended 30th June, 1911, is possible for most of the leading commercial countries, as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH DOMINIONS.

| | Imports. Six months ended June. | | | Exports (Domestic). Six months ended June. | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---|---------------|---------------|
| | 1909 | 1910 | 1911 | 1909 | 1910 | 1911 |
| | Thou. £'s. | Thou. £'s. | Thou. £'s. | Thou. £'s. | Thou. £'s. | Thou. £'s. |
| Germany..... | 204,763 | 217,269 | 228,333 | 149,439 | 174,183 | 187,319 |
| Belgium *..... | 68,697 | 78,889 | 83,353 | 49,006 | 61,570 | 67,118 |
| France..... | 126,216 | 142,733 | 176,460 | 109,538 | 123,868 | 121,005 |
| Switzerland†..... | 30,307 | 33,182 | 35,007 | 20,845 | 22,769 | 24,265 |
| Spain..... | 18,940 | 18,707 | 21,271 | 16,713 | 18,294 | 18,307 |
| Italy..... | 63,823 | 63,769 | 71,925 | 35,978 | 40,373 | 41,189 |
| Austria-Hungary..... | 54,011 | 59,898 | 63,909 | 45,227 | 47,129 | 47,296 |
| Egypt..... | 10,277 | 10,858 | 13,245 | 11,968 | 11,199 | 14,704 |
| United States..... | 149,583 | 166,547 | 159,114 | 161,398 | 163,349 | 201,792 |
| Japan§..... | 21,845 | 24,459 | 31,547 | 18,950 | 21,346 | 20,770 |
| British Empire:— | | | | | | |
| British India..... | 37,518 | 40,146 | 45,677 | 57,553 | 77,864 | 78,930 |
| Canada..... | 33,158 | 43,219 | 48,786 | 20,010 | 23,792 | 22,031 |
| British South Africa†..... | 12,967 | 17,840 | 18,984 | 23,742 | 27,249 | 27,582 |
| United Kingdom..... | 255,099 | 279,094 | 279,237 | 176,934 | 204,586 | 223,668 |

* Value of principal articles only. † Including bullion. § Exclusive of trade with Taiwan (Formosa), and, since September, 1910, of trade with Chosen (Corea).
(The figures in italics are provisional and subject to revision.)

Trade Per Head—1880-1908.

The following table gives the average of the net imports and domestic exports per head of the population of the four chief commercial States for periods extending back to 1880. The output of manufactured goods for foreign consumption is added:—

| Years. | United Kingdom. | | | France. | | | Germany. | | | United States. | | |
|---------|-----------------|------------------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------------------|---------------|----------------|------------------------------|---------------|
| | Total Exports | Exports of Manu- factures | Total Imports | Total Exports | Exports of Manu- factures | Total Imports | Total Exports | Exports of Manu- factures | Total Imports | Total Exports | Exports of Manu- factures | Total Imports |
| | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. |
| 1880-84 | 6 13 25 | 17 3 9 | 15 3 3 | 13 4 11 | 18 9 5 | 1 2 3 | 7 8 2 | 0 4 3 | 7 2 3 | 3 3 0 | 0 11 8 | 2 13 4 |
| 1885-89 | 6 3 8 | 5 7 7 | 8 14 2 | 3 9 2 | 11 6 7 | 4 6 10 | 3 10 2 | 1 5 3 | 7 7 2 | 9 10 0 | 10 10 2 | 7 6 6 |
| 1890-94 | 6 2 10 | 4 5 9 | 7 1 3 | 11 4 1 | 18 4 8 | 0 3 0 | 5 1 19 | 1 3 18 | 10 2 16 | 9 0 11 | 11 12 10 | 0 8 8 |
| 1895-99 | 5 18 11 | 4 19 10 | 9 16 5 | 3 14 8 | 2 1 2 | 4 8 3 | 7 5 2 | 3 5 4 | 6 6 2 | 2 19 5 | 0 17 2 | 2 0 8 |
| 1900-04 | 6 14 9 | 5 7 11 | 2 2 4 | 6 4 2 | 8 5 4 | 13 3 4 | 1 3 2 | 13 2 19 | 0 3 14 | 0 1 5 | 3 2 7 | 1 0 7 |
| 1905-08 | 7 11 6 | 4 4 11 | 16 8 5 | 5 11 3 | 11 0 5 | 13 6 5 | 0 8 3 | 9 0 6 | 5 5 4 | 4 4 5 | 11 14 2 | 2 19 7 |

§ In most cases these export figures, and those of foreign countries on the preceding page, include some "nationalised" goods, i.e., imported goods on which duty has been paid, but which are subsequently re-exported.

These figures, and those of foreign countries on the preceding page, are in most cases imports for home consumption and domestic exports, including articles of food and drink.

WORLD'S OUTPUT OF CERTAIN MINERALS AND METALS.

OUTPUT OF CERTAIN MINERALS AND METALS (CONTAINED IN OR OBTAINED FROM ORE RAISED) IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES DURING 1909.

| | United Kingdom. | British Colonies, Dependencies and Possessions. | Foreign Countries. | Total for the World. |
|------------------|-----------------|---|--------------------|----------------------|
| Coal..... | Metric tons | 268,007,257 | 37,751,869 | 807,549,260 |
| Copper..... | " | 442 | 72,262 | 820,007 |
| Fine gold..... | Kilogs. | 32 | 395,249 | 290,748 |
| Iron..... | Metric tons | 4,879,226 | 706,843 | 52,822,822 |
| Lead..... | " | 22,323 | 204,468 | 826,346 |
| Petroleum..... | " | — | 996,015 | 38,992,088 |
| Salt..... | " | 1,851,995 | 1,506,615 | 13,860,956 |
| Fine silver..... | Kilogs. | 4,421 | 1,366,199 | 4,972,351 |
| Tin..... | Metric tons | 5,282 | 60,049 | 51,267 |
| Zinc..... | " | 3,379 | 151,066 | 701,047 |
| | | | | 855,992 |

GREAT BRITAIN'S TRADE RIVALS.

A Comparison with Germany, France, and U.S.A.

A consideration of the comparative statistics supplied by the President of the Board of Trade in answer to a question put by Mr. Kellaway, M.P., on February 21st, 1911, will show that the United Kingdom is still a long way ahead of her rivals in the export of manufactured goods. In the period shown in the table, the imports of manufactured goods increased 11·3 per cent. in the United Kingdom, 44 per cent. in the United States, 49·5 per cent. in Germany, and 64·5 per cent. in France. There would seem from these figures to be no indication that the home trade of the United Kingdom suffers from any undue increase in foreign competition. On the other hand

the export of manufactured goods increased 46·5 in the United Kingdom, 64·2 per cent. in the United States, 51·4 in Germany, and 41·9 per cent. in France. Therefore if the export of manufactured goods is to be accepted as an index of national prosperity, this country not only remains supreme as the great actual exporter of manufactured goods, but in her rate of increase she is only seriously outpaced by the United States, which draws upon the only partially developed resources of half a continent. It should, of course, be noted in connection with these figures that 1910 was an exceptionally good year in all the countries concerned.

A.—VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

| Country | Year. | Articles wholly or mainly manufactured.* | | Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured.* | |
|----------------------|-------|--|--------------------|--|---------------------|
| | | Imports. | Exports (domestic) | Imports. | Exports (domestic). |
| | | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| United Kingdom | 1903 | 116,328,000 | 234,093,000 | 133,400,000† | 36,137,000 |
| | 1910§ | 129,502,000† | 343,023,000 | 197,932,000 | 53,337,000 |
| United States | 1903† | 94,480,000 | 97,479,000 | 68,852,000 | 85,142,000 |
| | 1910§ | 136,061,000 | 160,064,000 | 118,364,000 | 117,714,000 |
| Germany | 1903 | 59,391,000 | 161,326,000 | 139,755,000 | 60,149,000 |
| | 1910§ | 88,762,000 | 244,280,000 | 216,391,000 | 85,968,000 |
| France | 1903 | 32,756,000 | 96,540,000 | 120,828,000 | 47,028,000 |
| | 1910§ | 53,876,000 | 137,030,000 | 165,845,000 | 71,957,000 |

B.—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS PER HEAD OF THE POPULATION.

| Country. | Year. | Articles wholly or mainly manufactured.* | | Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured.* | |
|----------------------|-------|--|----------------------|--|----------------------|
| | | Imports. | Exports. (domestic). | Imports. | Exports. (domestic). |
| | | £. s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. |
| United Kingdom | 1903† | 2 14 11† | 5 10 6 | 3 3 0† | 0 17 1 |
| | 1910§ | 2 17 0† | 7 10 11 | 4 7 1† | 1 3 6 |
| United States | 1903 | 1 3 6 | 1 4 3 | 0 17 2 | 1 1 2 |
| | 1910§ | 1 10 3 | 1 15 7 | 1 6 4 | 1 6 2 |
| Germany | 1903 | 1 0 2 | 2 14 10 | 2 7 6 | 1 0 5 |
| | 1910§ | 1 7 4 | 3 15 2 | 3 6 7 | 1 6 5 |
| France | 1903 | 0 16 9 | 2 9 4 | 3 1 9 | 1 4 0 |
| | 1910§ | 1 7 5 | 3 9 9 | 4 4 5 | 1 16 8 |

* As classified in the returns of the several countries.

† Years ended June 30.

§ Provisional figures.

† Net imports, i.e., total imports less re-exports.

NOTE.—The systems of valuation adopted by the several countries differ materially, thus: For the United Kingdom the values represent declared values at United Kingdom ports. For the United States, the import values are those at the port whence shipped to the United States, while the export values are those at the United States port of shipment. For Germany, the values given for imports and exports in 1903 and for imports in 1910 are almost entirely official values, whilst for exports in 1910 the values of "manufactures" are mostly declared values, and those of "raw materials" mostly official values. The values of French imports and exports are almost entirely official values.

TRADE WITHIN THE EMPIRE.

Inter-Imperial Trade and Foreign Trade of the British Dominions and Possessions.

(Exclusive of Bullion and Specie. Compiled from the various official returns. Figures for 1909 in Thousand £.)

| | IMPORTS. | | | | EXPORTS. | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|----------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|---------|
| | From the U.K. | From other Parts of British Empire. | From Foreign Countries. | Total. | To U.K. | To other Parts of British Empire. | To Foreign Countries. | Total. |
| British India | 52,354 | 6,412 | 22,999 | 81,765 | 32,957 | 21,106 | 71,148 | 125,211 |
| Australia | 25,820 | 5,640 | 18,666 | 50,126 | 28,514 | 4,939 | 23,185 | 56,638 |
| New Zealand | 9,181 | 3,516 | 2,120 | 14,817 | 15,021 | 1,423 | 1,004 | 17,448 |
| Canada | 19,665 | 3,418 | 56,227 | 79,310 | 30,757 | 3,213 | 26,168 | 60,138 |
| Newfoundland | 492 | 880 | 938 | 2,310 | 293 | 414 | 1,523 | 2,230 |
| British South Africa .. | 16,706 | 3,393 | 8,198 | 28,297 | 13,469 | 283 | 3,308 | *17,060 |
| Straits Settlements .. | 3,736 | 16,388 | 15,033 | 35,157 | 6,948 | 9,605 | 15,058 | 31,211 |
| Ceylon | 2,172 | 5,163 | 1,029 | 8,364 | 4,821 | 1,520 | 3,452 | 9,793 |
| Mauritius | 496 | 844 | 487 | 1,827 | 237 | 2,005 | 28 | 2,320 |
| Jamaica | 1,124 | 192 | 1,244 | 2,560 | 556 | 147 | 1,847 | 2,550 |
| Barbadoes | 481 | 238 | 399 | 1,118 | 79 | 582 | 124 | 785 |
| Trinidad and Tobago .. | 869 | 288 | 1,211 | 2,368 | 489 | 346 | 1,538 | 2,373 |

* The bullion and specie exports from South Africa amounted to £33,405,063, excluded from the above table. This accounts for the apparent excess of imports over exports.

The total trade of the British Empire may be summarised as follows:—

| | 1909 |
|---|----------------|
| Trade of the British Empire with Foreign Countries— | |
| Imports | £655,706,000 |
| Exports | 544,818,000 |
| Total Foreign Trade | 1,200,524,000 |
| Trade of the United Kingdom with other parts of the British Empire— | |
| Imports | 186,409,000 |
| Exports | 150,867,000 |
| Inter-Colonial Trade— | |
| Imports | 57,951,000 |
| Total Inter-Imperial Trade..... | 395,227,000 |
| Grand Total | £1,595,751,000 |
| Percentage Proportion of— | |
| Foreign Trade | 75.2 |
| Inter-Imperial Trade | 24.8 |

Another criterion by which to judge the amount of trade between the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire may also be

measured by the tonnage of the shipping employed between British and Colonial ports, and between different Colonial ports. The tonnage of ships entered and cleared with cargoes at ports of the United Kingdom from and to British ports overseas showed an increase of over 40 per cent. between 1900 and 1910. The figures were:—

| | British vessels. | Foreign vessels. | Total. |
|--------------|------------------|------------------|-----------|
| | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. |
| Entered 1900 | 4,559,241 | 548,867 | 5,108,108 |
| 1910 | 7,838,014 | 493,967 | 8,331,981 |
| Cleared 1900 | 5,001,866 | 425,391 | 5,427,257 |
| 1910 | 7,555,247 | 322,866 | 7,878,113 |

These figures do not include ships entered or cleared in ballast. British vessels formed 94 per cent. of the total tonnage. The heaviest foreign contributor was Norway, with sailing vessels of 98,000 tons and steam vessels totalling 114,481 tons. The tonnage employed in inter-Colonial trade is approximately 21 million tons, 88 per cent. of which is British shipping.

BRITISH SHIPMENTS OF YARN AND COTTON, 1902-11.

| Year. | Yarn. Lbs. | Value in £ | Cloth. Yards. | Value in £. |
|-------------|-------------|------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1902 | 166,360,900 | 7,404,083 | 5,331,552,800 | 55,215,344 |
| 1903 | 150,758,100 | 7,407,946 | 5,157,315,600 | 55,267,487 |
| 1904 | 163,901,400 | 8,955,098 | 5,591,882,000 | 64,078,276 |
| 1905 | 205,000,900 | 10,317,452 | 6,198,199,900 | 70,817,032 |
| 1906 | 207,373,100 | 11,835,967 | 6,261,295,000 | 75,394,237 |
| 1907 | 241,115,800 | 15,417,081 | 6,298,040,500 | 81,048,337 |
| 1908 | 214,876,200 | 12,857,270 | 5,532,413,200 | 70,233,363 |
| 1909 | 215,238,000 | 11,822,110 | 5,722,323,100 | 68,279,769 |
| 1910 | 191,694,500 | 13,344,845 | 6,018,454,000 | 78,717,106 |
| *1911 | 162,596,700 | 11,575,681 | 4,892,224,300 | *66,693,622 |

* 9 Months.

THE COTTON TRADE.

Cotton Prices in 1911.

By WILLIAM TATTERSALL.

The year opened in the Lancashire cotton trade under conditions which could scarcely be described as healthy. Raw cotton prices were on a high level, and these were hampering both spinners and manufacturers to a considerable extent. Only a moderate American crop was expected, and the output in Egyptian cotton was rather uncertain. The weaving section, after being depressed for two or three years, showed signs of improvement, but manufacturers were scarcely in a position to hold out for prices which showed anything more than a bare margin of profit. On the other hand, spinners of yarn in both the American and Egyptian sections were doing badly, and a good deal of money was being lost. It is satisfactory to be able to record that during the year a distinct improvement has taken place, and it may be said that as 1911 draws to a close all cotton machinery in Lancashire is working at a profit, and there is plenty of employment for workpeople.

On January 3rd the quotation for Middling American cotton in Liverpool was 8.11d. Prices continued on a fairly high level, but at the beginning of February easier rates prevailed, 7.33d. being quoted on the 13th of that month. Fluctuations continued during the next few weeks without any marked alteration taking place. There was a hardening tendency, however, in April, and on the 19th of that month the quotation was 7.98d. The upward movement in prices continued, and on May 12th 8.42d. was reached, which turns out to be the highest quotation of the year. At the end of June the figure was 8.04d. Since then prices have given way considerably, the figure on August 15th being 6.64d., on September 28th 6.11d., and on October 24th 5.17d. It will be noticed that the decline since the middle of May amounts to the important figure of 3d. a pound, or 35 per cent. decline from the highest point. The American crop for the season ending August 31st last amounted to 12,232,000 bales, as compared with 10,651,000 bales in the season before.

With regard to Egyptian cotton, the quotation at the beginning of January for Fully Good Fair Brown in Liverpool was 11.7d. At the end of June the figure was 10.1d., and on October 24th

the quotation was 9.1d. The Egyptian crop for the season ending August last was a record, the growth being 7,573,500 cantars. It may be said that a cantar is equal to about 100lbs.

At the time of writing much interest is being taken in the outlook for supplies next year, and the prospects in America on the whole were never better. The slump in values in the American staple has been largely due to the very encouraging advices relating to the progress of the crop. The forward movement is very heavy, and although Messrs. Neill Bros., the eminent authorities, have not yet issued any estimate of the yield, it is thought in many quarters that the growth will be quite 14,000,000 bales, which, of course, will be a record output.

In Egypt, the conditions are not so favourable as 12 months ago. The crop is late, and there is not much prospect of the yield being equal to last season. No official estimate has yet been published by the Alexandria General Produce Association, but some private authorities are expecting a growth of about 6,500,000 cantars, or about 1,000,000 cantars less than last year. Very little East Indian cotton is now used in Lancashire, but the crop is important to spinners in European countries. The rains in our Dependency have turned out to be better than expected at one time, and a fair crop is expected, but the outlook is too uncertain for any forecast to be published.

The following table gives the average price of American and Egyptian cotton, together with the extent of the crops, for the past nine seasons:—

SUPPLIES AND PRICES OF AMERICAN AND EGYPTIAN COTTON.

| Year. | American. Middling. | | Egyptian. F. G. F. Brown. | |
|---------|------------------------|------------|------------------------------|-----------|
| | Average Price. | Crop. | Aver. Price. | Crop. |
| | d. | Bales. | d. | Cantars. |
| 1902-03 | 5.44 | 10,758,000 | 8.7 $\frac{7}{8}$ | 5,838,090 |
| 1903-04 | 6.04 | 10,124,000 | 8.7 $\frac{7}{8}$ | 6,508,947 |
| 1904-05 | 4.93 | 13,557,000 | 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 6,351,879 |
| 1905-06 | 5.94 | 11,320,000 | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 5,959,883 |
| 1906-07 | 6.38 | 13,551,000 | 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 6,949,783 |
| 1907-08 | 6.19 | 11,582,000 | 8.1 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 7,234,669 |
| 1908-09 | 5.50 | 13,829,000 | 8.7 $\frac{7}{8}$ | 6,755,812 |
| 1909-10 | 7.86 | 10,651,000 | 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 4,986,715 |
| 1910-11 | 7.84 | 12,132,000 | 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 7,573,500 |

The Outlook in the Weaving and Spinning Industries.

The manufacturing section of the industry, that is, the weaving of cloth from yarn, has steadily improved throughout the year. An increasing business has been done, and during July and September very large contracts were arranged for all our outlets abroad. Shippers at that time were in a

buying humour, and soon after free operations had been started it was found that manufacturers were rapidly filling up their order books and there was a rush on the part of outside buyers to put down contracts so as to obtain necessary deliveries. Many makers of standard fabrics are fully

sold for six months ahead, and although at the moment the raw cotton situation has rather checked business there is every prospect of further free buying before very long. The monsoon in India began well, but the rains stopped at one time, and there was some fear of a poor season. The rainfall, however, began again, and owing to the improved prospects merchants showed more disposition to anticipate requirements, and the buying for Calcutta has been of a most extensive character. The rebellion in China has caused some anxiety, but owing to stocks being allowed to run down rather low, exporters have recently placed substantial orders for distant months. The smaller outlets of the near East and of South America are committed to large shipments for a good way ahead, but there is some disorganisation of business at the moment owing to the war between Italy and Turkey.

The prosperity in the weaving section has resulted in more machinery being put down in several directions, and it is estimated that during the last few years about 17,500 additional looms have been erected. A feature of interest has been the shortage of operative weavers, some firms being handicapped a good deal owing to difficulties in this connection.

The year opened with very poor prospects for spinners of yarn. Many mills were running short time, and the demand from users

was not sufficient to take off the production of the spindles. In the middle of the summer an attempt was made to organise curtailment of production by the Masters' Federation, but the movement failed. A rather marked change occurred towards the end of August. The annual holidays in many spinning towns resulted in the production being much restricted, but owing to the activity in cloth the requirements of users were larger. Since then a steady improvement has taken place and mainly owing to the drop in cotton rates spinners have been enabled to considerably widen their margin. There are now healthy orders on the books and producers are continuing to sell fairly freely at profitable rates. The stocktaking results at the end of December will probably be the best for three or four years past, but some concerns have still unremunerative orders to work off, and many companies have adverse balances to be wiped out. It must be said that spinners engaged on American cotton are doing better than those who use the Egyptian staple. Very fine numbers are doing well, but the coarser counts, as made in the Bolton district, are in rather too large supply for more profitable rates to be secured. It has been a better year in yarns suitable for shipment abroad, and our exports show a considerable improvement compared with 1910.

Masters and Men in the Trade.

Trade has not been in any way disorganised by strikes or lock-outs. Here and there small disputes have occurred, and in some instances there were appearances of trouble between the masters and the workpeople, which may have led to a big stoppage of machinery, but owing to conciliatory methods being employed any rupture was prevented. The Brooklands Agreement, which governs the relations between the employers and the operatives in the spinning trade, has been amended so as to provide for periodical meetings between the two parties when a dispute takes place and negotiations have reached a deadlock. In North and North-east Lancashire an active campaign has been carried on by the Trade Unions Organisations with regard to the employment of non-unionists, and at the beginning of October there was some fear of a lock-out through a dispute at Burnley. A settlement was arranged, however, and at the time of writing there is no probability of fresh complications taking place.

In connection with the relations between the masters and the workpeople in the spinning section, the five years' agreement, which was come to in July, 1910, is still in force, and no general rise or fall in wages can take place until 1915. Several small disputes have taken place during the year, chiefly relating to bad spinning, but negotiations are pending, and there is no probability of serious trouble.

The *British Cotton Growing Association* continues to extend its work, and from year to year is more and more successful in opening up fresh fields for the growing of the raw material which is so important to Lancashire. A scheme for raising additional capital is being carried through, and contributions are being made, both by the employers and the operatives on a definite basis. Both capital and labour in this matter are united as to the advisability of increasing supplies in raw cotton, and it is notable that arrangements have just been made for a representative of the masters, along with a delegate of the operatives, to visit the West Indies during the next few months in connection with the work of the Association.

During the twelve months a matter which has caused much discussion has been the desirability of providing increased accommodation on the *Manchester Royal Exchange*. The directors have a scheme in hand for extending the present building, but at the same time an agitation has been carried on for the building of a new Exchange on the old Infirmary site, Piccadilly, Manchester. A committee of the Corporation is at present considering this matter, and the report is awaited with interest. Undoubtedly at the moment great inconvenience is caused to traders through the lack of adequate room on the present Exchange. It may be said that the membership is nearly 10,000, and on the market days of Tuesdays and Fridays the boards are very crowded.

The shipments in yarn and cloth for the past 10 years are given on page 70.

W. T.

THE REVIVAL OF THE WOOLLEN TRADE.

Keen Competition between French and Yorkshire Manufacturers.

Writing in 1903, Mr. Chiozza Money, M.P., declared that "there are most encouraging signs that the Yorkshire woollen manufacturers are devoting increased attention to method and design, and we may yet beat the French in costume cloths as we distance them in worsteds." For a generation this question of French competition has been the crux of the problem before the captains of the Yorkshire industry, and the object of the present article is to ascertain how far the English industry has succeeded in its struggle against its principal foreign competitor, at the same time enquiring how the three great woollen exporting nations—England, France, and Germany—have fared in the world's markets.

First, let us see how far our own producers have increased their control over the home markets:—

BRITAIN'S FOREIGN TRADE IN WOOLLEN AND WORSTED MANUFACTURES (INCLUDING YARNS, FLOCKS, AND TOPS).
(In Thousand £, 000 omitted.)

| | Net Imports (a) | | British Exports. | Exports exceed net Imports by |
|------|----------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| | From France only (c) | From All Sources | | |
| 1902 | (b) | 12,101 | 22,658 | 10,557 |
| 1903 | (b) | 10,426 | 24,627 | 14,201 |
| 1904 | 4,933 | 10,434 | 26,724 | 16,290 |
| 1905 | 5,186 | 11,379 | 28,801 | 17,422 |
| 1906 | 5,197 | 10,989 | 31,386 | 20,397 |
| 1907 | 4,163 | 9,667 | 33,707 | 24,040 |
| 1908 | 3,595 | 8,393 | 28,123 | 19,730 |
| 1909 | 3,386 | 8,544 | 30,672 | 22,128 |
| 1910 | 3,049 | 8,425 | 37,516 | 29,091 |

(a) Imports, less re-exports. (b) Cannot be stated. (c) Not including yarns for weaving. Consists almost entirely of stuffs.

The first thing that strikes us about these official records is the heavy fall of about 30 per cent. in the net imports from all sources.

These net imports are arrived at by deducting from the imports of foreign and colonial produce, the exports of foreign and colonial produce, thus showing the amount retained in this country for sale to the British public. The decrease of nearly 4 millions sterling is all the more satisfactory in that it is confined entirely to the more completely manufactured goods. Our purchases of foreign yarns for weaving—which are needed in large quantities by our makers of particular classes of goods—have grown slightly during this period, so that the fall in imports of the more fully manufactured articles must have been somewhat heavier than that shown in the table.

Moreover, while the skill and industry of our manufacturers have pulled down the imports in nine years from 12 to 8 millions it has swelled the exports of British goods from 22 to 37 millions. That is to say, in addition to doing a much larger business in the home market our factory-owners have immensely improved their position in foreign and colonial markets. And more particularly in foreign markets, as the following statement proves:—

DISTRIBUTION OF BRITISH WOOLLEN EXPORTS.
(In Thousand £, 000 omitted.)

| To | 5 years' average 1901-05 | 5 years' average 1906-10 | Increase |
|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| Foreign Countries | 17,945 | 23,595 | 5,650 |
| British Possessions | 6,848 | 8,685 | 1,837 |
| Total..... | 24,793 | 32,280 | 7,487 |

It appears then, that out of the 7½ millions sterling by which our sales to oversea customers have increased, slightly less than 25 per cent. is due to the better purchases of the Colonies and India, and rather more than 75 per cent. to the improved demands of foreign buyers.

England Outdistances Foreign Competitors.

It will now be interesting to see what progress our Continental competitors have been making:—

ENGLAND'S SUPREMACY IN THE WOOLLEN TRADE.

| 5 year averages. | Exports from England. Mill. £. | Exports from France. Mill. £. | Exports from Germ'y. Mill. £. | England's Supremacy over France, Germ'y. Mill. £. | |
|------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|-----|
| 1881-85 | 18.8 | 14.4 | 11.1 | 4.4 | 7.7 |
| 1886-90 | 20.4 | 14.2 | 12.2 | 6.2 | 8.2 |
| 1891-95 | 17.3 | 12.0 | 10.6 | 5.3 | 6.7 |
| 1896-00 | 15.7 | 10.2 | 10.6 | 5.4 | 5.1 |
| 1901-05 | 16.6 | 8.4 | 12.1 | 8.2 | 4.5 |
| 1906-10 | 21.5 | 8.7 | 13.1 | 12.8 | 8.4 |

NOTE.—The figures for all the countries cover piece goods and similar manufactures, and do not include yarns, flocks, and tops. The table is based on the Third Fiscal Blue Book, page 84.

Unlike the tables previously given,

this one does not include yarns and tops, in which we have a very large and flourishing trade. Consequently our improvement during the last ten years instead of being nearly 7½ millions sterling is only £4,900,000. In the same decade, however, Germany's increase in exports was but £1,000,000, and France's a mere £300,000. To put it in another way, we have in this decennial period made nearly five times as much progress as Germany and nearly 16 times as much progress as France! The result is that we are now farther in advance of either of our competitors than we have ever been before during the past 30 years, and there is as yet no sign of any slackening in the triumphant progress of the Yorkshire industry.

GEOFFREY DURHAM.

MACHINERY, CHEMICALS, AND LEATHER

The records of exports in the Machinery trades are readily accessible for the past 65 years, and they show a steady and continuous advance. Quoting them in quinquennial averages, we find that in the late 'forties they were less than a million sterling, in the 'fifties they rose to £1,716,000 and £3,554,000, and in the 'sixties to £4,549,000 and £4,974,000, and in the early 'seventies to £8,607,000—thanks to the Franco-German War and other exceptional factors which caused the abnormal boom in our general trade during those years. The late 'seventies saw a slight fall to £7,595,000; but in the 'eighties the advance was resumed, from £11,897,000 to £13,177,000; and it has never paused since, the figures for the 'nineties being £14,596,000 and £18,187,000; and for the 10 years ending with 1910, £20,190,000 and £29,363,000. Unfortunately the imports have only been separately recorded for less than 15 years; but in the last 10 years, while exports have grown from 20 to 29 millions sterling, net imports for home consumption have remained stationary at about 3½ millions sterling. In the year 1907, when the first Census of Production was taken, the amount produced in this country was £54,260,000, of which £31,744,000 (or 58 per cent.) was exported and sold to overseas customers, while the amount landed here and sold to British customers was only £3,879,000, or a little over 7 per cent. of the British production.

Another group of industries of great importance is that concerned with the production of **Chemicals, Drugs, Dyes, and Colours**. For these there are easily available records of exports for

40 years, and of net imports for 20 years, in each case ending with the year 1910. Again using quinquennial averages, we find the exports in the 'seventies rising slightly from £7,489,000 to £7,864,000; making better progress in the 'eighties, to £9,727,000 and £10,009,000; in the 'nineties reaching £11,518,000 and £12,159,000; and during the past 10 years advancing to £13,320,000 and £16,841,000. In the last 20 years we have a growth of exports from 11½ to about 16½ millions sterling, while net imports have in the same period increased from six to nine millions sterling. Unfortunately, owing to differences of classification between the foreign trade returns and the Census of Production, it is not possible to compare the production of these goods with the imports and exports.

The trade in leather **Boots and Shoes** is one of the minor branches of industry in which British energy and enterprise has met with great success during recent years. Away back in the late 'sixties our exports of these were little more than four million pairs, valued at a little over a million sterling; but in the five years ended with 1905 they were nearly nine million pairs valued at 1½ millions sterling, and in the next five years, to 1910, they reached 10½ million pairs, worth 2½ millions. Last year was a "record" one for the trade, exports having jumped from 10 million pairs worth £2,295,000 in 1909 to 13 million pairs valued at £3,030,000 in 1910. In these two years net imports fell from 2,058,000 pairs to 1,808,000 pairs, the respective values being £704,000 and £632,000.

Linoleum, India-rubber, and Cycles.

The manufacture of *Linoleum and Oilcloth* is another trade in which we have done remarkably well. In the early 'seventies the exports averaged less than 4 million square yards, worth a little over a quarter of a million sterling, but there was a constant and rapid growth, until in the five years to 1910 exports reached 48 million square yards, valued at 2½ millions sterling. In this case also 1910 was the "record" year, exports bounding up from 45,641,000 square yards, worth £2,232,000, in 1909, to 54,292,000 square yards, worth £2,632,000, in 1910. The two years showed a fall in net imports from 1,245,000 to 1,034,000 square yards, worth respectively £80,000 and £70,000.

India-rubber and its manufactures is a trade of great and rapidly-growing importance. In the late 'fifties we imported 28,000 cwt. of rubber, worth £180,000, of which we re-sold 10,000 cwt. for £67,000, leaving 18,000 cwt. to be made up into goods in this country. In the last two years we imported 700,000 cwt. for 1909 and 877,000 cwt. for 1910, the quantity re-sold to overseas customers being 398,000 cwt. in 1909 and 463,000 cwt. in 1910—leaving, in the latter year, 409,000 cwt. to be manufactured in the United Kingdom. The value of the

re-export trade to our merchants may be gauged from the fact that the re-exports were worth 9 millions sterling in 1909 and nearly 15 millions in 1910. Our exports of rubber manufactures (including boots and shoes and waterproofed clothing) were worth less than a million in the early 'seventies; in 1909 they reached £2,077,000, and in 1910 £2,507,000, while the net imports of such manufactures were £659,000 in 1909 and £714,000 in 1910.

In *Cycles, Motor-cycles, and Motor-cars* the recent record, in thousands of pounds, has been as follows:—

| | 1906. | 1907. | 1908. | 1909. | 1910. |
|-------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Net Imp'ts | £ 4,167 | £ 4,402 | £ 3,949 | £ 4,134 | £ 4,893 |
| British Exports | 2,010 | 2,666 | 2,736 | 3,307 | 4,723 |
| Excess of Imports | 2,157 | 1,736 | 1,213 | 827 | 170 |

The steady increase in British shipments here shown is the more remarkable in that it suffered no interruption even in 1908—the year when our general trade slumped so severely.

GEOFFREY DURHAM.

THE IRON AND STEEL TRADES.

Record Progress in 1906-10.

The section of British industry that it is proposed to deal with in this article is that covered by Group III.A in the Board of Trade's classification of imports and exports. This group includes pig iron, wrought iron, steel bars, steel rails, and other railroad material, iron and steel sheets and plates (including tinned plates), anchors, cables, tubes, nails, screws, bolts, bedsteads, wire, and structural iron and steel. It does not include machinery, implements and tools, hardware, cutlery, cycles and motors, the gun trade, and the shipbuilding trade. It is a section of British trade that has experienced severe ups and downs during the past half-century, for it was perhaps more powerfully affected than any other by the abnormal conditions of the early 'seventies brought about by the Franco-German war and other exceptional causes, including the great boom in foreign and colonial railway construction, which for two years swelled our exports of railroad iron to ten millions sterling a year, leaving them to sink again to less than three millions at the end of the 'seventies. Fortunately, the boom and subsequent collapse did not affect the entire iron and steel trades to so great a degree as this, or the misery occasioned by the displacement of capital and labour, severe though it was, would have been vastly greater. It affected them, however, to a sufficiently serious extent, as the following shows:—

BRITAIN'S FOREIGN TRADE IN IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURES (GROUP III.A IN BOARD OF TRADE CLASSIFICATION).

| 5 Year Averages. | Exports (a) | | Net Imports (b) | | Excess Exports. | |
|------------------|--------------|----------|-----------------|----------|-----------------|----------|
| | Thous. Tons. | Thous. £ | Thous. Tons. | Thous. £ | Thous. Tons. | Thous. £ |
| 1866-70 | 2,178 | 19,427 | — | — | — | — |
| 1871-75 | 2,616 | 30,941 | — | — | — | — |
| 1876-80 | 2,597 | 20,953 | — | — | — | — |
| 1881-85 | 3,668 | 26,434 | — | — | — | — |
| 1886-90 | 3,762 | 26,277 | — | — | — | — |
| 1891-95 | 2,761 | 21,223 | — | — | — | — |
| '96-1900 | 3,446 | 25,919 | 548 | 4,675 | 2,898 | 21,244 |
| 1901-05 | 3,357 | 28,836 | 1,159 | 7,776 | 2,198 | 21,060 |
| 1906-10 | 4,546 | 40,996 | 1,136 | 7,742 | 3,410 | 33,254 |

(a) Not including hollow-ware in 1904 and after.

(b) Not including hollow-ware at all.

From this it will be seen how enormously prices were inflated in the early 'seventies. Our exports of 2,616,000 tons were then valued at nearly £31,000,000, but in the succeeding five years, while the quantity fell very slightly, the value showed the prodigious fall of £10,000,000. Out of this, however, five millions sterling was accounted for by railroad material, and if we put aside this special effect of the collapse of the railway boom, we find that our shipments of other iron and steel actually rose by 287,000

tons in the late 'seventies, though the value of the shipments showed a drop of five millions sterling. After this, fairly satisfactory progress was made for 10 years, but we then encountered another severe set-back in the early 'nineties. This was mainly due to the Baring Crisis of 1890 and the Australian and American bank collapses of 1893. These events heavily reduced for some years our shipments to three of our best foreign markets, for the Baring Crisis was due to the collapse of Argentina's credit, which entailed the temporary collapse of her purchasing power; and the financial collapse in Australia and America greatly reduced the purchasing power of both those countries for a time.

The Recovery.

Our industry's recovery from these blows was, however, fairly complete in the next five years, and during the five years ended with 1910 greater progress (measured by quantities) has been made than in any similar period covered by the above records. In this quinquennium, too, the net imports (or imports retained in this country for sale to British customers) have declined both in quantity and in value; so that while 10 years ago we sold to oversea customers £21,000,000 more than we bought from them, we now sell to them £33,000,000 more than we buy from them. Our total shipments for the past five years have averaged very nearly 41 millions sterling, showing an improvement of more than 12 millions, and it will now be interesting to enquire how much of this increased trade is due to colonial purchasers and to the purchases of foreigners:—

DISTRIBUTION OF EXPORTS OF IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURES (in Thousand £).

| To | 5 years' averages. | 5 years' averages. | Increase. |
|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------|
| | 1901-05 | 1906-10 | |
| Foreign Countries | 16,152 | 24,674 | 8,522 |
| British Poss'ns. . . | 12,684 | 16,322 | 3,638 |
| Total | 28,836 | 40,996 | 12,160 |

From this it is clear that foreign customers have during the last five years been vastly more important to us than colonial customers, for the increase has been more than twice as great in the foreign section as in the colonial section. Here, however, a qualification is needed, for while the improvement in our trade with foreign countries generally has reached 8½ millions sterling the improvement with European countries has been only 3 millions sterling. For it is a fact, not sufficiently recognised even by experts, that Europe takes but a small proportion of our shipments of iron and steel, as well as of all other goods. In foreign trade the advantages of geographical

IRON AND STEEL TRADES—(con.)

situation assert themselves strongly, and Germany's position in central Europe has always enabled her to do for the past 30 years a much larger business with European nations than we have been able to do. Taking German exports of all classes of produce, from 70 to 75 per cent. is sold to European nations, while only 30 per cent. of British exports goes to those nations. As it is with exports generally, so it is, in slightly different degrees, with exports of iron and steel. Less than one-quarter of the iron and steel we export is sold to Europe; while certainly more than one-half, and probably two-thirds, of the iron and steel exported by Germany is sold in Europe.

It is, therefore, manifest that crude comparisons of British and German exports may be very misleading if no account is taken of the distribution of trade. The fact that Germany may make better progress than

ourselves in a given period may appear somewhat disconcerting; but if it turns out on examination that she has made the bulk of her progress in regions where we have never made much headway, and in the nature of things never can make much, then it is seen that there is little cause for misgiving on our part.

A somewhat similar warning is needed against the production returns of pig iron and steel in England, America, and Germany, crude comparisons of which are so often met with. All these countries produce the bulk of their iron and steel goods for home consumption, and it is perfectly clear that countries with rapidly-growing populations of 95 and 65 millions can sell much more for home consumption than a country with a slowly-growing population of 45 millions only.

GEOFFREY DURHAM.

THE WORLD'S WHEAT.

The warm, dry summer of 1911 meant an improved wheat crop for the British farmer. Taking 100 as an average, the Board of Agriculture estimated that the percentage for British cereals worked out thus:—

| | |
|--------------|-----|
| Wheat | 103 |
| Barley | 96 |
| Oats | 92 |

But whereas the British product is put at 3 per cent. above the average, that for Canada, United States, British India, Hungary, and other countries combined is put as high as 5·6 per cent. above the average. In Chile wheat was 20 per cent. above the average. The Board of Agriculture estimate for wheat, based on the International Agricultural Institute, is as under:—

| | Cwts. | | Cwts. |
|-------------|-------------|------------|-------------|
| Gt. Britn. | 34,231,000 | Hungary | 103,198,000 |
| Canada .. | 109,594,000 | Italy | 102,919,000 |
| U. States | 352,703,000 | Roumania | 51,164,000 |
| British In. | 198,380,000 | Japan | 11,016,000 |
| Prussia .. | 46,199,000 | France.... | 171,455,000 |
| Spain | 83,890,000 | Russia .. | 339,259,000 |
| Egypt..... | 20,377,000 | | |

The Argentine is not included in the above table, but the Argentine Minister in London has placed the probable yield of grain at 8,500,000 tons, a considerable increase over 1910.

The British Indian crop, which promised well early in the year, was seriously affected by drought; in Russia the early promise also was destroyed by drought, the result showing that something like two-thirds of the crop perished.

Owing, however, to the abundant crop in Canada and the Argentine, the year's output is estimated at 5 per cent. above the average, and therefore fully equal to the world's requirements. Curiously, it is Russia and British India, which showed the largest

average crop in 1910, that failed most conspicuously in 1911. On the other hand, Canada and the Argentine, which failed in 1910, came out with practically the largest per cent. of increase in 1911.

The receipts from each of the principal sources of imported wheat during the past four years are:—

| Country of Export. | Thousands of Cwts. | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|---------|--------|--------|
| | 1910-11 | 1909-10 | 1908-9 | 1907-8 |
| India | 21,460 | 16,077 | 10,904 | 10,480 |
| Russia | 25,728 | 27,911 | 9,470 | 4,455 |
| Argentina .. | 16,983 | 11,405 | 24,542 | 28,128 |
| Utd. States .. | 9,479 | 14,911 | 19,299 | 25,273 |
| Canada | 13,826 | 18,539 | 15,118 | 13,578 |
| Australia | 10,417 | 11,915 | 9,587 | 6,264 |

It is by maintaining the open market and supply from this country or that, according as the harvest has yielded abundantly or failed, that the United Kingdom is enabled to maintain its general wheat supply for the people at so steady a level, both in quantity and in price. The variations in the total estimated wheat grain available for home consumption, and in the average prices per quarter (British and foreign) during the last eight years, may be set side by side for comparison:—

| Harvest Year. | Total estimated Wheat Grain available for Home consumption (including seed). Qrs. | Average price of Wheat per qr. |
|---------------|---|--------------------------------|
| 1903-4 | 34,029,470 | 27 2 |
| 1904-5 | 32,795,790 | 30 7 |
| 1905-6 | 34,282,510 | 28 9 |
| 1906-7 | 33,966,970 | 28 1 |
| 1907-8 | 32,768,210 | 32 9 |
| 1908-9 | 32,023,070 | 36 6 |
| 1909-10 | 35,500,180 | 32 6 |
| 1910-11 | 33,853,720 | 30 11 |

PROTECTION AND THE PRICE OF WHEAT.

Who Receives the Excess in Price?

In 19 years the French Government received £30,000,000 from the duties on wheat, but the French people during that period paid not thirty million, but three hundred and twenty-four million sterling in increased prices. Here are the actual figures:—

EFFECT OF THE DUTY ON THE PRICE OF WHEAT IN FRANCE, 1890-1908.

| Year. | Percentage Imported. | Average price Foreign Wheat in Britain. Per quarter. | Duty on Wheat in France. Per quarter. | Average price Wheat in France. Per quarter. | Excess of Price in France. Per quarter. | Excess in Percentage of Duty. |
|-------|----------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------|
| | | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | |
| 1890 | 11·17 | 33 5 | 8 8 | 44 1 | 10 8 | 123 |
| 1891 | 26·32 | 38 1 | 5 2 | 47 10 | 9 9 | 188 |
| 1892 | 19·18 | 32 10 | 8 8 | 41 6 | 8 8 | 100 |
| 1893 | 12·31 | 27 7 | 8 8 | 37 9 | 10 2 | 117 |
| 1894 | 12·26 | 22 11 | 12 2 | 34 6 | 11 7 | 95 |
| 1895 | 5·28 | 23 7 | 12 2 | 32 9 | 9 2 | 75 |
| 1896 | 2·07 | 26 6 | 12 2 | 33 4 | 6 10 | 56 |
| 1897 | 7·80 | 31 11 | 12 2 | 43 9 | 11 10 | 97 |
| 1898 | 17·39 | 34 4 | 12 2 | 45 8 | 11 4 | 93 |
| 1899 | 1·62 | 28 8 | 12 2 | 34 11 | 6 3 | 51 |
| 1900 | 1·84 | 29 2 | 12 2 | 33 8 | 4 6 | 37 |
| 1901 | 2·34 | 28 5 | 12 2 | 35 3 | 6 10 | 56 |
| 1902 | 2·77 | 28 8 | 12 2 | 37 9 | 9 1 | 75 |
| 1903 | 5·00 | 29 1 | 12 2 | 39 8 | 10 7 | 87 |
| 1904 | 2·90 | 30 0 | 12 2 | 37 11 | 7 1 | 65 |
| 1905 | 2·22 | 31 0 | 12 2 | 40 10 | 9 10 | 81 |
| 1906 | 3·61 | 30 2 | 12 2 | 41 0 | 10 10 | 89 |
| 1907 | 3·71 | 32 11 | 12 2 | 42 0 | 9 1 | 75 |
| 1908 | 1·02 | 36 0 | 12 2 | 38 5 | 2 5 | 20 |

| Year. | Home Grown. | Imported. | Total. | Total Amount Extra paid. | Received by | |
|-------|-------------|------------|-------------|--------------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| | | | | | The State. | Private Individuals. |
| | Qrs. | Qrs. | Qrs. | £ | £ | £ |
| 1890 | 40,131,000 | 5,044,000 | 45,175,000 | 24,093,000 | 2,186,000 | 21,907,000 |
| 1891 | 26,513,000 | 9,470,000 | 35,983,000 | 17,541,000 | 2,446,000 | 15,095,000 |
| 1892 | 37,566,000 | 8,915,000 | 46,481,000 | 20,142,000 | 3,863,000 | 16,279,000 |
| 1893 | 33,479,000 | 4,702,000 | 38,181,000 | 19,409,000 | 2,038,000 | 17,371,000 |
| 1894 | 41,923,000 | 5,860,000 | 47,783,000 | 27,674,000 | 3,521,000 | 24,153,000 |
| 1895 | 41,143,000 | 2,292,000 | 43,435,000 | 19,907,000 | 1,394,000 | 18,513,000 |
| 1896 | 41,038,000 | 869,000 | 41,907,000 | 14,318,000 | 528,000 | 13,790,000 |
| 1897 | 29,744,000 | 2,516,000 | 32,260,000 | 19,087,000 | 1,530,000 | 17,557,000 |
| 1898 | 43,759,000 | 9,208,000 | 52,967,000 | 30,015,000 | 5,602,000 | 24,413,000 |
| 1899 | 44,005,000 | 727,000 | 44,732,000 | 13,978,000 | 442,000 | 13,536,000 |
| 1900 | 39,293,000 | 738,000 | 40,031,000 | 9,007,000 | 449,000 | 8,558,000 |
| 1901 | 37,572,000 | 901,000 | 38,473,000 | 13,145,000 | 548,000 | 12,597,000 |
| 1902 | 39,710,000 | 1,128,000 | 40,838,000 | 18,547,000 | 666,000 | 17,861,000 |
| 1903 | 44,053,000 | 2,315,000 | 46,368,000 | 24,538,000 | 1,408,000 | 23,128,000 |
| 1904 | 36,088,000 | 1,079,000 | 37,167,000 | 14,712,000 | 666,000 | 14,056,000 |
| 1905 | 40,440,000 | 919,000 | 41,359,000 | 20,335,000 | 559,000 | 19,776,000 |
| 1906 | 39,129,000 | 1,466,000 | 40,595,000 | 21,989,000 | 892,000 | 21,097,000 |
| 1907 | 45,513,000 | 1,753,000 | 47,271,000 | 21,469,000 | 1,066,000 | 20,403,000 |
| 1908 | 37,382,000 | 387,000 | 37,769,000 | 4,563,000 | 235,000 | 4,328,000 |
| | 738,486,000 | 60,289,000 | 798,775,000 | 354,467,000 | 30,049,000 | 324,418,000 |

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THE SUGAR CONVENTION.

International Agreement and the Price of Sugar:

When, in the middle of the 'nineties, Mr. Chamberlain, as Colonial Secretary, conceived the idea that the British West Indies were being ruined by the competition of bounty-fed producers of beet sugar, he urged that a Commission should be sent to the West Indies to enquire into the question. Three Commissioners therefore departed in 1896, but when they issued their report in the following year only one of them attributed the troubles of the West Indian sugar industry to the bounty system. Nevertheless, the Unionist Government then in power seems to have adopted Mr. Chamberlain's opinion, which regarded the bounties as the root of all the evil, and it was not long before efforts were made to restrict the free importation of bounty-fed sugars into this country as well as into other countries.

The opportunity presented itself in 1901, when the eighth European Sugar Bounty Conference met at Brussels, and Great Britain was of course represented. A convention was drawn up binding the contracting nations not to grant bounties and not to import sugar from countries which granted bounties. This was ratified early in 1903, subject to Great Britain's refusal to penalise bounty-fed sugar from any British Colony, and was to come into force on September 1st, 1903, remaining valid for five years. Russia—a bounty-granting country—was not represented at the Conference, and the most important result of the convention was to shut off the Russian supply from English commercial and domestic consumers.

Now all this was done for the special benefit of the British West Indies, and it will at this point be interesting to see how far the sacrifice on the part of British consumers benefited the West Indies. As we have seen above, the convention came into force towards the end of 1903. It will therefore be well to see the production figures as

given in Parliamentary Papers 334 of 1907 and 281 of 1911:—

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN BRITISH WEST INDIES AND BRITISH GUIANA.

| | Thous. Tons. | 4 Years' Avgs. | | Thous. Tons. | 4 Years' Avgs. |
|--------|-----------------|----------------------|-------|-----------------|----------------------|
| 1896 | 278 | — | 1903* | 201 | — |
| 1897 | 271 | — | 1904 | 264 | — |
| 1898 | 260 | — | 1905 | 256 | — |
| 1899 | 245 | 263 | 1906 | 281 | 273 |
| 1900 | 238 | — | 1907 | 254 | — |
| 1901 | 285 | — | 1908 | 255 | — |
| 1902 | 301 | — | 1909 | 218 | — |
| 1903 * | 291 | 279 | 1910 | 220 | 237 |

* Sugar Bounties Convention came into force.

We thus see that during the eight years ending with 1903 the average production in these colonies improved from 263 to 279 thousand tons a year. After the Convention came into operation in 1903, the average dropped to 273 thousand tons for the first four years, and declined still further to 237 thousand tons for the last four years. Whatever may be said about the Convention, then, it cannot possibly be maintained that it has brought about the result mainly desired by the British statesmen who entered into it—namely, a stimulation of the sugar industry in the British West Indies.

As regards its effect on the British consumer, it has already been said that the Russian supply was cut off from us. In 1904, 1905, 1906, and 1907 we received no sugar from Russia for consumption here, but at the end of 1907 a protocol was signed at Brussels admitting Russia to the Convention and permitting her to export to European countries not more than 1,000,000 tons within the succeeding five years. Consequently our imports from Russia began again in 1908, and reached large proportions in that year, but they fell seriously in 1909, and again very heavily indeed in 1910.

When the renewal of the Convention was criticised in the House of Commons, Sir Edward Grey explained that the Liberal Government had intended to withdraw from it, but had found that the carrying out of its intention would lead to diplomatic friction which it was desirable to avoid.

Imported Food, Drink, and Tobacco Retained for Home Consumption in 1910.

| | Total. | Quantity per Head. | | Total. | Quantity per Head. |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| <i>Imported Articles :</i> | | <i>lbs.</i> | <i>Meat :</i> | | <i>lbs.</i> |
| ButterCwts. | 4,257,195 | 10·62 | Beef | 8,294,619 | 20·69 |
| Margarine | 1,113,788 | 2·78 | Bacon and Ham | 4,491,530 | 11·20 |
| Cheese | 2,391,770 | 5·97 | Mutton | 5,396,732 | 13·46 |
| Chicory | 68,154 | — | Pork | 479,446 | 1·20 |
| Cocoa, RawLbs. | 53,045,137 | 1·18 | Potatoes..... | 3,314,212 | 8·27 |
| Manufac. | 14,305,206 | 0·32 | Sugar and Molasses | 67,334,865 | 167·96 |
| Coffee | 260,669 | 0·65 | TeaLbs. | 286,891,970 | 6·39 |
| Corn, Grain, &c.: | | | Tobacco | 89,974,090 | 2·0 |
| Wheat, Meal, and | | | Wine | 12,671,952 | 0·28 |
| Flour | 118,628,696 | 295·90 | Spirits (Potable) | 5,218,978 | 0·12 |
| Maize | 36,239,307 | 90·39 | <i>Excisable Articles:</i> | | |
| Rice | 8,161,253 | 20·36 | Spirits (Home-made) Galls | 24,047,020 | 0·53 |
| EggsThousands | 2,182,349 | 48·60* | Beer (Home-made) Barrels | 32,830,073 | 20·32* |

* Number.

SHIPBUILDING IN 1910.

The output of British shipbuilding yards in 1910 is given in Lloyd's Annual Summary as follows:—

| | No. of Vessels Launched. | Tonnage. |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|-----------|
| Warships | 45 .. | 135,645 |
| Steamships | 473 .. | 1,137,738 |
| Sailing Ships | 27 .. | 5,431 |
| | 545 .. | 1,278,814 |

Of this tonnage over 80 per cent. was built for British firms. The chief customers for British-built ships (other than warships) outside the United Kingdom are the British Colonies. Next in order come Norway (34,038 tons), Germany (26,507 tons), Sweden (20,247 tons), Austria-Hungary (18,447 tons), France (15,077 tons), Russia (10,841 tons), and Brazil (10,627 tons).

The largest vessel ever built, the White Star liner "Olympic" (45,000 tons) was launched from Belfast in 1910.

Lloyd's Register shipbuilding returns show that there were 496 vessels, of 1,476,394 tons gross, under construction in the United Kingdom at the close of the quarter ended June 30th, 1911.

The figures are the highest reported in the Society's Quarterly Returns, being 62,000 tons more than the previous record total, which was reached in September, 1901, and 358,000 tons more than in June, 1910. Of the 496

vessels, 378 are for British or Colonial owners.

The shipbuilding activity in the chief ports of the kingdom, omitting the naval dockyards, was distributed in 1910 as follows:—

SHIPS LAUNCHED IN 1910.

| | Ships. | Tonnage. |
|-------------------------|--------|----------|
| Glasgow and District .. | 132 .. | 233,446 |
| Newcastle | 75 .. | 232,346 |
| Sunderland | 60 .. | 179,435 |
| Belfast | 16 .. | 163,338 |
| Greenock | 55 .. | 142,722 |
| Middlesbrough and | | |
| Stockton | 44 .. | 108,754 |
| Hartlepool & Whitby .. | 23 .. | 86,295 |
| Hull and Grimsby | 41 .. | 23,001 |
| Liverpool | 22 .. | 17,485 |
| Leith | 12 .. | 9,144 |
| Aberdeen | 21 .. | 8,995 |
| Dundee | 7 .. | 5,455 |
| Barrow, Maryport, and | | |
| Workington | 9 .. | 4,269 |

A comparison of the June returns with those of other countries will show that the United Kingdom is well ahead of her rivals. The vessels, exclusive of warships, under construction in the various countries on June 30th were as follows:—

| | No. | Tonnage. |
|----------------------|--------|-----------|
| Great Britain | 496 .. | 1,476,394 |
| Germany | 82 .. | 255,006 |
| France | 29 .. | 126,180 |
| United States | 53 .. | 97,803 |
| Holland | 32 .. | 78,325 |
| Austria-Hungary | 11 .. | 54,750 |
| Japan | 26 .. | 34,239 |

British Shipping in the Home and Foreign Trade.

Total net tonnage of British and foreign vessels (sailing and steam) entered and cleared in the United Kingdom, from and to foreign countries and British Possessions:—

| | Entered. | | | Cleared. | | |
|------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| | British. (Tons) | Foreign. (Tons) | Total. (Tons) | British. (Tons) | Foreign. (Tons) | Total. (Tons) |
| 1900 | 31,445,828 | 17,777,478 | 49,222,306 | 31,265,508 | 18,035,379 | 49,300,887 |
| 1905 | 35,200,869 | 20,423,105 | 55,623,974 | 35,762,218 | 20,654,542 | 56,416,760 |
| 1909 | 39,061,660 | 26,647,859 | 66,309,519 | 40,102,311 | 26,355,852 | 66,958,163 |
| 1910 | 39,641,620 | 27,018,829 | 66,660,449 | 40,173,466 | 27,196,399 | 67,369,865 |

Number and net tonnage of registered and steam vessels of the United Kingdom engaged in the home and foreign trade, and the number of persons employed (not including vessels employed

on rivers and in inland navigation):—

| | Total Number of Vessels. | Total Tons. | Persons Employed. | | | Total |
|------------|--------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------|-----------|---------|
| | | | British. | Foreign. | Lascars.* | |
| 1900 | 14,935 | 9,395,207 | 174,532 | 36,893 | 36,023 | 247,448 |
| 1905 | 14,521 | 10,597,761 | 180,492 | 39,711 | 43,483 | 263,686 |
| 1906 | 14,716 | 11,035,772 | 188,340 | 38,084 | 44,367 | 270,791 |
| 1907 | 14,746 | 11,288,759 | 194,848 | 37,694 | 44,604 | 277,146 |
| 1908 | 14,692 | 11,168,574 | 196,834 | 34,735 | 44,152 | 275,721 |
| 1909 | 14,533 | 11,140,801 | 198,474 | 31,873 | 43,960 | 274,307 |
| 1910 | 14,440 | 11,303,239 | 201,910 | 30,462 | 43,934 | 276,306 |

* Under the heading "Lascars" are included Asiatics and East Africans, whether British subjects or foreigners, employed on vessels trading between India and this coun-

try, or entirely in Asiatic or Australian waters and serving under agreements which terminate in Asia.

THE WORLD'S PRODUCTION OF IRON ORE.

PRODUCTION OF IRON ORE.

| Country. | 1908. | 1909. |
|---------------------|------------|-------------|
| | Tons. | Tons. |
| United States . . . | 35,983,000 | 53,034,000† |
| Germany* | 23,888,000 | 25,095,000 |
| United Kingdom . . | 15,031,000 | 14,980,000 |
| France | 9,895,000 | 12,254,000† |
| Spain | 9,123,000 | 9,056,000 |
| Russia | 5,200,000† | † |
| Sweden | 4,637,000 | 3,823,000 |
| Austria-Hungary . . | 4,495,000 | 2,450,000§ |
| Canada | 213,000 | 239,000† |
| Belgium | 193,000 | 203,000 |

† Provisional figures, in some cases partly estimated.
‡ The figures of production are not yet available. § Production in Austria only. * Including Luxemburg.

Algeria, Greece, Italy, Newfoundland, and other countries produce about $\frac{1}{2}$ million

tons of iron ore annually. Existing deposits of iron ore, more or less developed, are estimated at 22,408 million tons, so that at the present rate of output there is iron enough for more than another two centuries. The untapped sources amount to another 123,377 million tons, the principal untouched deposits being in Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Four-fifths of the quantity of pig-iron produced annually came in 1910 from the United States (27,795,000 tons), Germany (12,442,000 tons), and the United Kingdom (9,532,000 tons). The same three countries produce 80 per cent. of the world's steel output, the figures being: United States, 23,955,000 tons; Germany, 11,856,000 tons; United Kingdom, 6,610,000 tons.

A REVOLUTION IN MARINE ENGINEERING.

BY A MEMBER OF THE INSTITUTION OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS.

The Improvements in the Parsons Turbine.

There are two lines of development taking place in marine engineering, both of which will have to show themselves superior to the reciprocating steam engine to become popular. The first is in connection with the turbine, and the second is in regard to the internal-combustion engine. The turbine in this country is naturally associated with the name of Sir Charles Parsons, who, though not a marine engineer by profession, has revolutionised the practice of marine engineering. The Parsons turbine is practically supreme in the Royal Navy, also for the fastest Atlantic liners, and for cross-channel steamers. But Sir Charles Parsons had to admit that his system was not suitable for the ordinary cargo vessel or "tramp," which type of ship does the bulk of the carrying trade of the world, and the engines and boilers fitted in these ships show remarkable economy. As the coal bill is the heaviest item of a ship-owner's outlay it is obvious that any new system must show to advantage in this respect before being taken into consideration.

Sir Charles Parsons has set himself to solve this problem, and he has dealt with it with characteristic thoroughness. His firm bought the "Vespasian," a small cargo boat, and, after an exhaustive series of trials, the original engines were removed, the boilers, propeller, and shafting remaining. A Parsons turbine was installed, and the high revolutions geared down to suit the propeller. It has long been known that the propeller and the turbine are badly mated, the former being efficient at low revolutions and the latter being efficient at high revolutions. In the "Vespasian" a turbine running at or near its maximum efficiency is geared down by special toothed gearing to revolutions suiting the propeller. The whole crux of this problem lay in the efficiency and wearing qualities of the gearing, and Sir

Charles exhibited at the spring meetings of the Naval Architects the gearing of the "Vespasian," which had been in the vessel during 18,000 miles of steaming, and the wear of the teeth appears to be a negligible quantity. The pinions were made of mild chrome nickel steel of tensile strength 37 to 38 tons, and elastic limit of 32 tons.

Sir Charles Parsons is prepared to guarantee higher results than were obtained with the "Vespasian," viz., with new boilers of about 180lbs. pressure a consumption of water of 12½lbs. to 13lbs. per shaft horse-power per hour. The records of the long series of sea trials with this installation on the "Vespasian" showed that the consumption was 13½ per cent. less with the turbines than with reciprocating engines, with a great saving of oil and less wear and tear. The system is now being installed in two cross-channel steamers being built on the Clyde, and it may be confidently anticipated that in the near future many more such ships will be built.

The Navy is trying the system somewhat modified in a torpedo-boat destroyer. The propeller shafts are geared to the high-pressure and the low-pressure turbine, both of which run independently at revolutions conducive to efficiency, the ratio of the gearing being such as to run the propeller shaft at an efficient speed for the propeller. This experiment is full of promise for future developments. Another of Sir Chas. Parsons' methods is that known as the "combination" system, based on the fact that the turbine can efficiently employ low-pressure steam as low as 8lbs. to 10lbs. absolute pressure. A usual method is to employ two sets of reciprocating engines which exhaust into a low-pressure turbine on a centre shaft. This has resulted in an economy of 14 to 18 per cent. on the total consumption. The three largest vessels building for the Atlantic service, viz., the "Aquitania," and two boats for the Hamburg-America Company, are all to be propelled by the Parsons turbine.

The Internal-combustion Engine.

For the internal-combustion engine there are two main types to consider, viz., the gas engine and the oil engine.

The gas engine uses gas made by a "gas producer," for which coal is required. An experimental vessel of this type, the "Holzapfel I.," has now been running for some time, and a company has been formed to exploit the matter commercially. The engines of this vessel are 180 h.p., and have six cylinders, and it is stated that the consumption of coal per 24 hours is from 25 to 33 cwt., or about one-half that required by a steam-engine propelled vessel of the same size. "Producer gas," as made on shore, has an extractor in the plant to take out the tar from bituminous coal, and if this coal is used on board ship a similar tar extractor must be installed. A feature of the above engine is that it is always running in the one direction, and variation of speed and reversing, both of which are essential in a marine engine, are obtained by the use of the "Föttinger hydraulic transformer." The results up to date appear to indicate that the "Holzapfel I." will prove an historic ship, and be the forerunner of many other vessels driven by gas engines.

Oil engines are considered by the Committee of Lloyd's Register to be so promising that special rules have been formulated for their construction. The Diesel engine is the type most favoured, at any rate for large work, this type being now fitted in at least 250 ships, most of these on the Continent, and including among the number many submarines. The world's supply of oil is not sufficiently reliable to justify the universal adoption of oil as the propelling agent, but Dr. Diesel has stated that any kind of oil, natural or artificial, can be used, and it is thus outside the operations of any oil trust or "corner."

An oil-engined vessel is now being built

to the order of Lord Furness, to carry about 3,200 tons, and a duplicate, except as regards machinery, of ordinary vessels in the Transatlantic trade. It is stated that the saving of capacity is from 8,000 to 10,000 cubic feet, and the saving of weight is 100 tons in machinery and 8 tons in fuel per day, amounting to 200 tons for a 25-day coaling. About £10 a month is saved in cost of engine-room staff. The above are only estimates at the present time, but they look hopeful, and the extra first cost of the oil engine would soon be made up. The above vessel still carries a donkey boiler to drive the auxiliary machinery, as steering gear, winches, &c.

A vessel actually built and tried during the year, fitted with Diesel engines, is the "Toiler," a vessel 248ft. long with two sets of 2-cycle reversible Diesel engines equivalent to 400 i.h.p. This vessel on a round voyage from the Tyne to Calais used 1.65 to 1.75 tons of oil per day, the average speed out "loaded" with 2,650 deadweight being 5.9 knots and home "light" 8.2 knots. This vessel is for service on the Canadian canals and lakes. The deck machinery and engine-room accessories are operated by compressed air, the electric-light dynamo is driven by a small paraffin engine, and the accommodation is heated by hot water, the heat being obtained from the exhaust gases of the main engine. Messrs. Barclay, Curle, & Co. are building at Whiteinch a 12-knot vessel of 7,000 tons deadweight for foreign owners, propelled by the Diesel engine. There is a German vessel, the "Vulcanus," which is now on active service. Certain difficulties incidental to the adoption of a new system have been successfully overcome.

All the above goes to show that the internal-combustion engine, whether gas or oil, is passing the experimental stage for cargo-carrying vessels, and there is no doubt that we shall see in process of time that more vessels will be built using this system. This type of engine is being largely fitted in fishing vessels and for similar work.

The Fastest Vessels in the World.

The world's record for speed has been gained by the racing hydroplane launch, "Mapleleaf III.," designed by Sir John Thornycroft, and, apart from the novel form of the hull, this has been rendered possible by the development of the internal-combustion engine. This little vessel is 40ft. in length and 9ft. in beam, and has attained a record speed of between 58 and 60 miles per hour. The engines are about 650 h.p., driving twin screws, each set having 12 cylinders.

At the time of writing the trials of the Dreadnought cruiser "Lion" have not taken place, but when they come they will be followed with intense interest. This vessel is 660ft. long and 26,350 tons displacement, and with 70,000 shaft horse-power is designed for 23 knots. This speed, turned into landsman's measurement, means 32 miles per hour, and there is the likelihood of this tremendous speed being exceeded. This vessel carries eight of the new

13.5in. guns. The "Queen Mary," now building, is slightly larger, viz., 27,000 tons, with the same armament and speed. Many of us think that this must be the limit, if only because docks sufficiently large to accommodate such a vessel are so few in number, but the experience of the past teaches us how unsafe it is to prophesy.

The largest Atlantic liners, the "Olympic" and the "Titanic," are products of 1911. These White Star vessels are 882ft. in length overall, breadth 92ft. 6in., and the height from keel to navigating bridge is 104ft. The engines are on the "combination" system, each of the two reciprocating engines being 15,000 h.p., and the low-pressure turbine 16,000 h.p. This power will drive the vessel at a speed of 21 knots. Such a vessel is a paying commercial proposition, the 25 knots of the "Lusitania" and "Mauretania" only being possible because of the Government subsidy.

NATIONALISATION OF RAILWAYS.

By J. F. L. BRUNNER, M.P.

The events of 1911 on the railways of the United Kingdom have again called public attention to the question of nationalisation. In many countries railways are owned and managed by the government, and in most of them to the great advantage of trade and the travelling public.

The question whether the railways ought to become the property of the State is one which, as a question of practical politics, will excite acute differences of opinion, but if this country is to keep ahead of others many spheres of enterprise now left in private hands must be invaded by Government activity.

A strong case can be made out at any rate for the acquisition of the Irish railways. In Ireland, of a total length of 3,363 miles 899 are controlled by no less than 12 companies, giving them an average of 75 miles. Each has its directors, manager, and organisation complete—a state of affairs which can only be called absurd.

The objections raised to nationalisation may be stated thus:—

(1) Men in all grades do not work as hard for public bodies as they do for private employers, therefore their service is less efficient.

(2) The advantages of competition will be lost.

(3) Nationalisation cannot be made to pay.

(4) The "railway vote" will be a serious danger.

To the first of these the answer is a flat contradiction provided that the service is one which brings in revenue. Under such circumstances there is always the test, "Is it paying?" Comparisons can then be made and public opinion, as in the case of the Post Office, can be relied upon to keep up efficiency.

With regard to the second, if a "bull" is allowed one can say, "There is no competition, and it is getting less." The idea of fostering competition has often been in the minds of committees of Parliament, but it is a delusion to think that competition has done good. When a competing line has been constructed rates have usually

gone up, as interest had to be provided on two capitals instead of one. Capital has been wasted and the public have reaped no advantage. Elsewhere in this book is given a summary of the report of the Departmental Committee on Railway Agreements and Amalgamation, which should be read in this connection. The remaining objections will be dealt with later.

We could not expect for some years to make large profits, as expenditure would be necessary to make junctions (like that at Bickley, constructed when the S.E.R. and the L.C. & D.R. amalgamated) and short connecting lines for the exchange of traffic at points where it does not pass because the lines are under different owners.

On the other hand, in a few weeks traffic would pass to its destination by the shortest and cheapest route. Duplicate stations would be closed in many towns. There would be no more boycotting at competitive points. The trains on the lines now known as the G.W.R. and the L.S.W.R. would be run to enable the public freely to get to any point instead of deliberately to prevent them as at present. There would be losses in convenience. Trains would be better filled, but with better filled trains lower passenger fares would be possible. First-class passengers could not expect to get compartments to themselves, and competitive expresses would be abolished, but traders would, doubtless, get lower rates for a full truck load than they do now for 4 tons which at present is, as a rule, the limit for which a reduction is given. It is probable that a reduction of passenger fares would more than pay, but it is difficult, if not impossible, now for railway managers to make the experiment.

Hungary, which instituted some years ago a "zone-system" of fares with considerable reductions, induced an increase of traffic so large that it more than paid for the reductions. Rates and fares are higher in the United Kingdom than in most countries, but it must be admitted that nowhere is a more efficient, prompt, and safe service rendered.

The Cost of Purchase.

In case of purchase by the State what price are we to pay? Not one penny has ever been written off the enormous sums paid to landlords and lawyers in the early days of railway promotion. But should the trade of the country be saddled for ever with the interest on this dead-weight capital?

We can take it for granted that nothing in the nature of confiscation of railway property will take place. Railway shareholders have invested in good faith and do not receive extravagant interest. They are not guilty of the blundering and swindling of the

original promoters. We must pay a fair price and look to savings for reductions of fares and rates.

Some of these savings can be made at once. Part of them have already been indicated, others are the abolition of directors and of managers of small companies, and particularly of the costly clearing-house which has a small army of officials not only at Euston, but all over the country. All these, however, do not amount to much, and would be swallowed by the increases in wages which railway workers as State servants would legitimately demand.

Canals and Railway Traffic.

But in the future enormous savings would be possible. Any purchase of the railways connotes the acquisition of the canals, and it is to the co-ordination of the railways and the canals that we must look for relief from the burdens on trade.

Anyone reading the report of the Royal Commission on Canals will see that for an expenditure of only £30,000,000 to £40,000,000 we could buy and improve the canals and make them again a useful part of our traffic facilities. This amount is very small compared with the cost of buying the railways, whose capital stands at £1,318,000,000.

The policy of the future railway Board would be the reverse of the present. It would be to put as much traffic on the canals as possible. This would work in two beneficial ways. Firstly as canal working is cheap current expenses would be reduced, and secondly the making of new or the widening of existing lines would be postponed many years. Slow traffic would be put on the canals and the railways reserved for more remunerative fast traffic. It is not too much to say that the canals improved to take 300-ton boats could carry ten times the present tonnage. We are justified then

in thinking that the purchase of the railways and the canals by the Government at a fair price can be made to pay.

Railway nationalisation involves the creation of a large additional number of state servants, and another set of problems for the consideration of politicians.

That these servants should be well paid goes without saying, but how are their wages and conditions of employment to be settled? It is imperative to find some method which does not involve pressure on Members of Parliament. If the House of Commons had a Bill before it which would render members liable to pressure from railway workers similar to that which is now brought to bear in "dock-yard" constituencies, it would have very little chance of passing. Something in the nature of a trust like the Port of London Authority seems to be the best way of avoiding this difficulty. But it does not settle the problem of avoiding strikes. Mr. Sydney Buxton has appointed a Commission, and it is to be hoped that it will prove a means acceptable to both sides, but at the worst, strikes on nationalised railways will be no greater a danger than they are to-day. J. F. L. BRUNNER.

CANALS AND INLAND WATERWAYS.

The Royal Commission's proposals are to standardise the canals between the Thames and Mersey, and those between the Humber and the Severn, in order to adapt those routes to through traffic for barges of 100 tons, with provision for waterways from the chief inland ports to the seaboard for craft up to 750 tons burden.

Of four related schemes, the first deals with a standardised canal from London to Birmingham, branching off to Leicester. The second, utilising the Trent and Soar, provides a river route from the Humber to Nottingham and Burton, and linking up with scheme No. 1. The third scheme is for a standardised canal from the Mersey to Stoke, Wolverhampton, and Birmingham; while the fourth scheme connects the Severn Ship Canal, navigable by coasting craft as far as Gloucester, with Birmingham and Wolverhampton.

These schemes, taken together, connect the industrial Midlands with the chief seaports, and convert Leicester, Nottingham, Burton, Wolverhampton, and Birmingham into leading inland ports. Other towns, like Coventry, Northampton, Dudley, West Bromwich, and Rugby, are connected by branches of the standardised system.

The capital cost of these proposals, worked out in detail by Sir John Wolfe Barry and Partners, comes to the modest total of £17,533,000, with an annual estimated working expenditure of £1,104,181.

Including navigable rivers, the United Kingdom has at present 4,053 miles of waterways. It is proposed to begin by standardising the main routes. To provide water for these enlarged canals would involve the construction of new reservoirs at an initial cost of £764,542, and an annual charge of £44,232. Surveys have been made which would enable this work to be undertaken at once.

The Royal Commission propose the creation of a National Waterways Board, after the pattern of the Road Board, appointed under the Development Fund Act. The Board should have powers to put forward proposals, which would receive Parliamentary sanction, for the acquisition, unification, and improvement of waterways, and authority to issue Waterways Stock, guaranteed by the State. The Royal Commission believe that an adequate return would be obtained on the outlay.

Figures of Railwaymen's Wages and a summary of the Report of the Royal Commission, will be found in the Section Labour.

BRITISH RAILWAYS.

Railway Mileage and Railway Dividends.

THE MILEAGE, CAPITAL, TRAFFIC RECEIPTS, WORKING EXPENSES, AND NET EARNINGS OF THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1910 AND 1909 COMPARED (FROM CD 5706).

| | 1910. | 1909. | Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1910. | |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|
| | | | Amount. | Per Cent. |
| | Miles. | Miles. | Miles. | |
| Mileage | 23,387 | 23,280 | (+) 107 | (+) 0.5 |
| Of which double or more | 13,072 | 12,996 | (+) 76 | (+) 0.6 |
| Track mileage (including sidings) | 54,311 | 53,972 | (+) 339 | (+) 0.6 |
| | £ | £ | £ | |
| Paid-up capital | 1,318,515,000 | 1,314,407,000 | (+) 4,108,000 | (+) 0.3 |
| Amount included in the foregoing which is nominal only | 197,124,000 | 196,681,000 | (+) 443,000 | (+) 0.2 |
| † Paid-up Ordinary Capital | 492,080,000 | 493,121,000 | (-) 1,041,000 | (-) 0.2 |
| Amount included in the foregoing which is nominal only | 91,745,000 | 91,303,000 | (+) 442,000 | (+) 0.5 |
| Receipts:— | | | | |
| Passenger traffic | 52,759,000 | 51,205,000 | (+) 1,554,000 | (+) 3.0 |
| Goods traffic | 61,479,000 | 59,477,000 | (+) 2,002,000 | (+) 3.4 |
| Miscellaneous (steamboats, canals, docks, hotels, &c.) | 9,688,000 | 9,492,000 | (+) 196,000 | (+) 2.1 |
| Total | 123,926,000 | 120,174,000 | (+) 3,752,000 | (+) 3.1 |
| Working expenditure | 76,570,000 | 75,038,000 | (+) 1,532,000 | (+) 2.0 |
| Net earnings | 47,356,000 | 45,138,000 | (+) 2,220,000 | (+) 4.9 |
| | Per cent. | Per cent. | | |
| Proportion of net earnings to capital | 3.59 | 3.48 | (+) 0.16 | |
| Dividend paid on ordinary capital .. | *3.48 | *3.15 | (+) 0.33 | |

* These percentages are calculated on amounts a little in excess of the true totals. † The apparent decrease in the amount of ordinary capital is wholly due to the transfer of £2,000,000 worth from ordinary to preferential capital in the amalgamation of the three lines which now form the London Electric Railway.

The Railway Half-Year.

ANALYSIS OF THE ACCOUNTS OF THE LEADING ENGLISH RAILWAYS FOR THE FIRST HALF OF 1911 (TAKEN FROM THE "FINANCIAL TIMES" OF AUG. 10th).

| COMPANY. | Passenger Receipts. | Goods and Miscellaneous Receipts. | Net Revenue Credits, including Amounts brought forward | Total Revenue. | Expenses. | Pre-Ordinary Charges Paid. | Available for dividend on Ordinary Stock | Dividend on Ordinary Stock | Carried Forward |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|--|----------------------------|-----------------|
| | 1911 | 1911 | 1911 | 1911 | 1911 | 1911 | 1911 | 1910 1911 | 1911 |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | % pa % pa | £ |
| G.O. | 564406 | 1691724 | 149865 | 2405995 | 1474729 | 896062 | 35204 | | 35204 |
| G.E. | 1381366 | 1494450 | 107162 | 2982978 | 1892231 | 890998 | 190778 | 1½ 2½ | 17946 |
| G.N. | 1058339 | 1978002 | 119086 | 3150427 | 1977795 | 798759 | 378878 | 3 3 | 120927 |
| G.W. | 3142089 | 3731339 | 144657 | 7018085 | 4438773 | 1646690 | 932622 | 4 4½ | 120426 |
| L. & Y. | 1194023 | 1804570 | 46568 | 3045161 | 1782307 | 887427 | 425427 | 3½ 4½ | 25471 |
| L. & N.W. | 3117651 | 4649682 | 200572 | 7967905 | 4883567 | 1666203 | 1423135 | 5½ 6 | 141470 |
| L. & S.W. | 1631818 | 1094152 | 42953 | 2768923 | 1798152 | 646798 | 323973 | 4 4 | 35587 |
| L.D. & S.C. | 1149280 | 512788 | 39302 | 1701870 | 1029185 | 465289 | 206946 | 3 3½ | 23487 |
| M. | 1992656 | 4316111 | 294116 | 6512883 | 3856469 | 1493545 | 1162369 | 5 5½ | 41878 |
| N.E. | 1509618 | 3645598 | 110548 | 5265764 | 3310174 | 975741 | 979849 | 5 5½ | 106002 |
| S.E. & L.C.D. | 1606655 | 706735 | 9973 | 2323363 | 1517108 | 77405 | | | .. |
| S.E. | 15068 | 91805 | 99109 | 205982 | 22238 | 516938 | 96826 | 1 1½ | .. |
| L.C. & D. | .. | 31049 | 77403 | 108452 | 5982 | 398722 | 2578 | | 2578 |
| Inc. or dec. as per ret. of 1910. | 18272969 + 631697 | 25743005 + 838125 | 1441814 + 142880 | 45457288 + 1612702 | 27983660 + 687620 | 11309548 + 197790 | 6159080 + 727292 | | 676066 + 134942 |

(b) Surplus after payment of interest on 5 per cent. 1881 Pref. Stock. (d) Including £10,000 to Insurance Fund, Continental Steamboats. (e) Including £20,000 to special renewals. (f) Including £20,000 to general reserve. (g) Including £100,000 to general reserve. (i) Including £10,000 to reserve and £10,000 reserved for steamboat renewals. (j) Including special allocations of £30,000 for bridge renewals, £50,000 for alterations of signalling equipment, and £40,000 for renewals of carriages. (n) Including £20,000 to general reserve and £50,000 to reserve for contingencies. (o) Surplus after payment of 2 per cent. per annum on the 4½ per cent. Arbitration Pref. Stock.

Passengers by Rail and Tram.

In the following table a comparison is made between the annual rate of increase in the numbers of third class railway passengers and tramway passengers respectively:

| Year. | Third Class. Railway Passengers. (Years ending 31st December) | Increase (+) or decrease (-). | | Tramway Passengers*. | Increase. | |
|-------|---|----------------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|-------------|-----------|
| | | Number. | Per Cent. | | Number. | Per Cent. |
| 1901 | 1,068,919,000 | (+) 80,046,000 | (+) 2.9 | 1,198,227,000† | 132,853,000 | 12.5 |
| 1902 | 1,080,625,000 | (+) 11,706,000 | (+) 1.1 | 1,394,453,000† | 196,226,000 | 16.4 |
| 1903 | 1,086,205,000 | (+) 5,580,000 | (+) 0.5 | 1,799,343,000† | — | — |
| 1904 | 1,092,549,000 | (+) 6,344,000 | (+) 0.6 | 2,068,913,000† | 269,570,000 | 15.0 |
| 1905 | 1,110,024,000 | (+) 17,475,000 | (+) 1.6 | 2,236,013,000† | 167,100,000 | 8.1 |
| 1906 | 1,162,182,000 | (+) 52,158,000 | (+) 4.7 | 2,454,807,000† | 218,794,000 | 9.8 |
| 1907 | 1,189,420,000 | (+) 27,238,000 | (+) 2.3 | 2,625,533,000† | 170,726,000 | 7.0 |
| 1908 | 1,213,188,000 | (+) 23,718,000 | (+) 2.0 | 2,659,981,000† | 34,448,000 | 1.3 |
| 1909 | 1,204,869,000 | (-) 8,269,000 | (-) 0.7 | 2,743,189,000† | 83,208,000 | 3.1 |
| 1910 | 1,248,793,000 | (+) 43,924,000 | (+) 3.6 | § | § | § |

† Years ending June 30th.

‡ These figures represent the total number of passengers carried by street and road tramway and light railway companies during the years ending December 31st, 1903, to 1909, and by street and road tramways and light railways owned by local authorities during the years ending March 31st, 1904, to 1910, respectively.

§ Returns not yet available.

The figures given above neglect first and second class passengers whose numbers are rapidly decreasing. The Great Western abolished the second class carriage in 1910, and motor-car traffic reduces the number of first class passengers. First class passengers numbered 29,788,000 and second class 28,148,000 in 1910.

ELECTRIC RAILWAYS.

The lines worked wholly or mainly by electrical power in 1910 were the Blackpool and Fleetwood tramroad, the Central London, the City and South London, the Great Northern and City, the Liverpool Overhead, the Waterloo and City, the London Electric, the Mersey, the Metropolitan, the Metropolitan District and the Whitechapel and Bow. Their total mileage was 139 miles. Their financial results were as follows:—

| | |
|---|------------|
| Total Receipts | £3,211,495 |
| Working Expenditure | 1,664,640 |
| Net Receipts | 1,546,855 |
| Percentage of Expenditure to Total Receipts..... | 52 |

The number of passengers conveyed by the Tube railways in the Metropolitan alone was approximately 173 millions in 1910.

In the half-year ending June, 1911, the London electric railways continued to show a great increase of traffic, the number of passengers on the Metropolitan District being 4,359,156 greater than the corresponding figures of 1910. But in spite of their heavy passenger traffic and the low cost of running they find it difficult to make an adequate return on the large capital laid out on them. The Central London in January—June, 1911, paid 3 per cent. on its ordinary capital, the City and South London 1½, the London Electric 1 per cent., and on its first preference the Metropolitan District was paying 4½ per cent. These returns show an improvement in every case.

The Central London is extending to Liverpool Street, and at its western end is seeking powers to link up with Ealing.

The London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway followed up the successful experiment of the electrification of the South London (Victoria to London Bridge) section of their line by the electrification of the Crystal Palace line completed in May in time for the Festival of Empire. The system of electric traction adopted is the single-phase alternating-current high-tension one, involving the use of the overhead conductor. The routes electrified cover 15 miles. The company's report for the first half of 1911 states that the increase in gross revenue (£54,121) arises almost entirely from passenger traffic, which has advanced not only in numbers, but in money, and the electrical services have contributed materially towards this result. In the case of working expenses there is an advance of £20,670, "attributable mainly to additional expenditure on the repair and renewal of engines, the higher price and greater consumption of coal, and special traffic charges, consequent upon the extension of electrical working in the Crystal Palace."

There have been persistent rumours, denied insofar as the immediate future is concerned, that the company is considering the electrification of the main line to Brighton. The directors will have before them a scheme for the electrification of the line from Croydon to Brighton in the course of the next year. Powers for the widening of the line were obtained some years ago, and considerable progress has been made with this, which would be a necessary preliminary to the undertaking.

RAILWAY POOLS.

Report of the Departmental Committee on Amalgamations.

The Departmental Committee appointed to consider the question of amalgamations between railway companies, which was appointed in 1909 by Mr. Churchill, reported, in May, 1911:—

The Committee sat for 47 days, and as a result of an exhaustive enquiry they came to the following general conclusions as to the attitude of (1) the railway companies and (2) of the trading and general public:—

1. The opinion of railway companies appears to be consolidating in favour of co-operation, and a general movement exists to give more complete effect to this opinion.

2. The attitude of the trading and general public, whose interests are of greater magnitude, and are as deeply involved as those of the railway companies themselves, although not of indiscriminating opposition, may be described as one of uncertainty, not unmingled with alarm.

The Commission recognised that the natural lines of the development of an improved and more economical railway system lie in the direction of more perfect co-operation between the various railway companies; and accepted the growth of co-operation and the more complete elimination of competition as a process at once inevitable, and likely to be beneficial both to railway companies themselves, and if properly safeguarded, to the public also. They made a large number of recommendations, designed to safeguard the interests of passengers and freight owners, of litigants against the companies, and of the railway servants. The Committee recommend that it should lie with the railway company to justify the reduction or withdrawal of existing facilities, or the increase of rates and fares by passenger train.

Procedure before the Railway and Canal Commission should be simplified and cheapened, and complaints should, where possible, be settled locally.

The through rates on goods for import and export, alleged at present to be prejudicial to home industry and agriculture, should be investigated. The trader sending at "owner's risks," because his goods are perishable or unpacked, should be guaranteed from loss or damage not arising out

of these special conditions. Rates should be available eventually in a printed table.

The terms of working agreements and amalgamations, the constitution of Conferences and Clearing House Committees, should be made public.

The maximum rates of companies amalgamating should be revised; and after amalgamation their systems should be considered the systems of one company, and rates reckoned continuously.

Finally, the Committee say that provisions restricting dismissals of servants in consequence of arrangements sanctioned by the Act should also provide for compensation to be paid in such cases, including compensation for the loss of any superannuation or pension fund benefits.

The Report is signed by the Rt. Hon. Russell Rea, M.P., chairman, and by the other members of the Commission. Notes are appended by Mr. W. Temple Franks, Sir M. Levy, M.P., Mr. G. H. Roberts, M.P., and Mr. A. Siemens.

Mr. Roberts concludes his remarks by saying:—

The forms of co-operation foreshadowed by the railway mind do not secure to the public a full share of the benefits accruing from simplified and more economical administration. Nor will they accomplish the greatest possible economies. On the other hand, the establishment of powerful corporations, vested with the control of national transit services, is fraught with some dangers. Traders must ever be at a disadvantage in contesting claims against wealthy railway combines, while with the greater resisting powers of consolidated interests the employes may witness declining prospects of advancement, even when their demands are proved to be just and reasonable.

For these reasons I lay particular stress upon the retention of parliamentary supervision over railway conditions. Further, as a closer approximation to unified control appears certain, I think the evidence shows it to be desirable that the question of whether the public welfare would be more efficiently and economically served by the State ownership of railways should now be transferred from the stage of academic discussion to that of practical politics.

Railway Enterprise and Agriculture in the United States.

The American railway companies in their search for freights are taking practical steps to develop agriculture along the lines of communication. Fifty-two companies have organised agricultural instruction trains fitted up with lecture and experiment rooms to which the local farmer is invited. Eight railways have experimental farms destined to show what can be accomplished with poor land. Another enterprising company has organised farming associations which are regularly notified by the railways of changes in the demand of fresh markets, &c. The Board of Agriculture Report states that all the railway companies are satisfied with the results of their efforts. One case is

mentioned where 3,500 wagon loads of fruit and vegetables are now sent over the lines of a company, as compared with practically nothing five or six years ago. In other cases not only has there been a large increase in the production of staple crops along the railway, but also an increase in fruit and vegetable growing of fully 100 per cent. in the last five years. In one locality adapted to the growth of strawberries, a railway company agreed to furnish plants and to instruct the farmers how to plant and grow this fruit. In the first year 86 acres were planted, with a yield of nine wagon loads. In 1904 about 1,000 acres were planted, and fifty wagon loads were dispatched, and this increased two years later to between 250 and 300 loads.

COAL AND ELECTRICITY SUPPLY. A Menace to British Industry.

The growth in the output of coal of the chief countries is as follows:—

| | U.K. Mill. tons | France. Mill. tons | Germany Mill. tons | U.S.A. Mill. tons |
|------|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1860 | 80.0 | 8.2 | 12.1 | 13.0 |
| 1870 | 110.4 | 13.0 | 26.0 | 29.5 |
| 1880 | 147.0 | 18.5 | 46.2 | 63.8 |
| 1890 | 181.6 | 25.2 | 69.1 | 140.9 |
| 1900 | 225.2 | 32.2 | 107.5 | 240.8 |
| 1905 | 236.1 | 34.7 | 119.4 | 350.8 |
| 1906 | 251.1 | 32.9 | 134.9 | 369.8 |
| 1907 | 267.8 | 35.4 | 140.9 | 428.9 |
| 1908 | 261.5 | 36.3 | 146.2 | 371.3 |
| 1909 | 263.8 | 36.7 | 146.5 | 390.3 |

In his presidential address to the British Association in 1911, Sir William Ramsay uttered an emphatic warning about the danger which threatens the industry of this country through the rapid diminution of the coal supply.

"In 1870 110 million tons were mined in Great Britain, and ever since the amount has increased by $\frac{1}{3}$ million tons a year. The available quantity of coal in the proved coal fields is very nearly 100,000 million tons; it is easy to calculate that if the rate of working increases as it is doing, our coal will be completely exhausted in 175 years. . . . This consumption is still proceeding at an accelerated rate. Between 1905 and 1907 the amount of coal raised in the United Kingdom increased from 236 to 268 million tons—equal to 6 tons per head of the population—against $\frac{3}{4}$ tons in Belgium, $\frac{2}{3}$ tons in Germany, and 1 ton in France. Our commercial supremacy and our power of competing with other European nations are obviously governed, so far as we can see, by the relative price of coal; and when our prices rise, owing to the approaching exhaustion of our supplies, we may look forward to the near approach of famine and misery."

It is only fair to point out that this gloomy forecast was not universally endorsed. Dr. John Simpson, speaking at the annual general meeting of the Institution of Mining Engineers, in September, 1911, expressed the opinion that the coal supplies of this country had been under-estimated. Since the publication of the Report of the Coal Commission coal has been found to exist near Doncaster, and it is possible, for instance, that the Yorkshire

coalfield may extend from Doncaster northward and link up with the Ferry Hill district of the South Durham Coalfield. Boring for coal is going on in Buckinghamshire, and a new coalfield is being opened up in Midlothian.

Sir William Ramsay had indicated the other sources of energy which it may conceivably be possible to utilise in the future. These resources include the ebb and flow of the tides, the internal heat of the earth, the winds, solar heat, water-power, the extension of forests, and the use of wood and peat as fuels, and lastly, the possibility of controlling the slow disintegration of the elements with the view of utilising their stored-up energy.

The use of the energy due to the revolution of the earth on her axis, or to her proper motion round the sun is at present outside practical consideration. Sir William pointed out the economies that might and should be made in domestic heating; the greater economy in industrial undertakings which would follow on the substitution of turbine engines for reciprocating engines, and on the further replacement of turbines by gas-engines, which give an economy amounting to 30 per cent. of the total energy available in the coal.

A more far-reaching reform than the adoption of these and similar methods would be the concentration of energy in the form of electric current at high potential so that it may be conveyed for long distances through thin and therefore comparatively inexpensive wires. The economic coefficient of the conversion of mechanical into electrical, and of electrical into mechanical energy is a high one; the useless expenditure does not much exceed one-twentieth part of the energy which can be utilised. "These considerations," said Sir William, "would point to the conversion at the pit mouth of the energy of the fuel into electrical energy, using as an intermediary turbines, or preferably gas engines, and distributing the electrical energy to where it is wanted."

Economy of Electric Power.

The economy and importance of large electric power stations had been demonstrated by Mr. S. Z. de Ferranti at a meeting in the autumn of 1910 of the Institution of Electrical Engineers. He then stated that the conversion of coal into electricity on a large scale would enable the necessary energy to be supplied by 60 million tons of coal in the year, not the 150 millions at present required.

A national supply of 131,400 million Board of Trade units (which is the amount of energy estimated to be required to supply all our present needs for heating, lighting, and power, including an allowance to cover the waste in transmission), could, he

estimated, be supplied from 100 generating stations. The estimate of the capital cost of the scheme is 500 millions sterling, and the annual cost of production, 62 millions sterling.

Economy in coal would prolong the life of our coal supply 250 per cent., the by-products of fixed nitrogen, tar and oil would be fully utilised. The available amount of sulphate of ammonia for agricultural purposes, or its equivalent in nitrogen, is estimated under the all-electric scheme at 3 million tons; not less important would be the saving in transport, and in cleansing our houses and towns of coal dust and smoke.

THE CENSUS OF PRODUCTION.

The Output of 7,000,000 British Workers.

Throughout the fiscal controversy both sides have felt the absence of reliable statistics of the sum total of the production of British workshops. The struggle over imports and exports, their rise and fall, the proofs they give of national prosperity or decadence has rendered everybody familiar with the size and general tendencies of our foreign trade. But complete uncertainty, relieved or intensified by mere guesses based usually on entirely insufficient data, has prevailed as to the scope and extent of our home trade.

The Census of Production Act, 1906, however, authorised the compulsory collection of statistics relating to the quantity and value of goods manufactured in the United Kingdom during 1907 whether intended for home consumption or for export. The Census was unfortunately not complete. Agriculture, which can still claim to be considered as our leading industry, was omitted, because it was urged that fairly accurate deductions could be made by the Board of Agriculture from materials in their possession. These will be published later. And in some trades it has been found impracticable to obtain reliable information. But so far as they go the returns, which now give an accurate indication of the **productive activity of seven million workers**—practically half the total industrial population—are of considerable value. It is safe to say that very few people suspected the enormous size of our home trade.

During 1907 and 1910 preliminary reports dealing with mines, cotton, wool, iron and steel factories, shipbuilding, engineering, leather, paper, textile, pottery, manufactured metal and railway materials, were issued. Particulars of these will be found in the "Daily News Year Books" of 1910 and

1911. The remaining preliminary tables have now all been published, and it is possible to summarise the complete results.

| | Gross output. | Materials used (cost). | Work given out (amt. paid to other firms). | Net output. | Persons employed (excluding out-workers). |
|----------------------|---------------|------------------------|--|-------------|---|
| England and Wales .. | Mill. £ 1,483 | Mill. £ 860 | Mill. £ 20 | Mill. £ 603 | 5,764,000 |
| Scotland .. | 208 | 116 | 5 | 87 | 885,000 |
| Ireland | 66 | 43 | 1 | 22 | 287,000 |
| United Kingdom | 1,757 | 1,019 | 26 | 712 | 6,936,000 |

Probably about 100,000 outworkers must be added to the total of persons employed.

The raw material of one factory may be the finished product of another. Hence there is considerable duplication in the gross output. But if in the case of a particular firm, from the selling value of goods manufactured be subtracted the cost price of the firm's raw material and the money paid to other firms for assisting in the process of manufacture, the result will be the increase in value of the goods while passing through that firm's hands. Thus in the aggregate the net output obtained by subtracting from the gross output the cost price of raw material and the amount paid for work given out represents completely and without duplication the value added to the raw materials in course of manufacture. This, as the table shows, amounts to the enormous sum of **£712,000,000**.

The following tables have been published since the last issue of the "Daily News Year Book":—

MATERIALS, OUTPUT, AND PERSONS EMPLOYED.

| Trade. | Gross output. £ | Materials used (cost). £ | Work given out (amt. paid to other firms). £ | Net Output. £ | Persons employed. | Net output per person. £ |
|---|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| Grain milling | 65,255,000 | 58,885,000 | 2,000 | 6,368,000 | 36,207 | 176 |
| Baking (private) | 38,840,000 | 27,250,000 | — | 11,590,000 | 110,168 | 105 |
| Baking (army)* | 61,925 | 55,468 | — | 6,457 | 136 | 47 |
| Victualling (navy)* | 34,971 | 32,487 | — | 2,484 | 28 | 89 |
| Cocoa, confectionery, &c. | 16,137,000 | 11,162,000 | — | 4,975,000 | 60,735 | 82 |
| Farinaceous preparations and Household articles (ext. soap) | 4,284,000 | 2,275,000 | — | 20,090,000 | 11,536 | 174 |
| Cattle and poultry food | 1,385,000 | 1,082,000 | — | 303,000 | 1,879 | 161 |
| Ice factories | 383,000 | 122,000 | — | 261,000 | 1,251 | 209 |
| Sugar and glucose | 12,315,000 | 9,026,000 | — | 3,289,000a | 6,491 | 507a |
| Brewing | 67,110,000 | 25,774,000 | 196,000 | 41,140,000a | 85,222 | 483a |
| Spirit distillery | 4,833,000 | 3,352,000 | — | 1,481,000 | 6,510 | 227 |
| Spirit compounding | 4,011,000 | 3,613,000 | — | 398,000 | 1,121 | 355 |
| Bottling factories | 12,803,000 | 9,687,000 | — | 3,116,000 | 20,601 | 151 |
| Mineral waters, &c. | 6,060,000 | 2,476,000 | — | 3,584,000 | 28,653 | 125 |
| Tobacco | 23,799,000 | 17,988,000 | — | 5,811,000 | 37,456 | 155 |

INTERNAL TRADE. Census of Production—continued.

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| Trade. | Gross output. £ | Materials used (cost). £ | Work given out (amt. paid to other firms). £ | Net output. £ | Persons employed. | Net output per person. £ |
|---|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| Preserved foods | 5,106,000 | 3,235,000 | — | 1,871,000 | 13,128 | 143 |
| Bacon curing | 10,509,000 | 9,451,000 | — | 1,058,000 | 7,294 | 145 |
| Fish curing | 3,636,000 | 2,863,000 | — | 773,000 | 24,684 | 31 |
| Butter, cheese, &c. | 10,102,000 | 8,935,000 | — | 1,167,000 | 9,304 | 125 |
| Clothing (private firms) .. | 64,488,000 | 35,478,000 | 1,773,000 | 27,237,000 | 440,664 | 62 |
| Clothing (army)* | 314,907 | 217,160 | — | 97,747 | 1,553 | 63 |
| Boots and shoes | 22,959,000 | 13,893,000 | 101,000 | 8,965,000 | 126,564 | 71 |
| Hats and caps | 5,107,000 | 2,994,000 | 63,000 | 2,050,000 | 30,829 | 66 |
| Gloves | 1,046,000 | 606,000 | — | 440,000 | 4,828 | 91 |
| Umbrellas and sticks | 1,713,000 | 1,106,000 | — | 607,000 | 7,497 | 81 |
| Fancy fur | 1,650,000 | 1,014,000 | 55,000 | 581,000 | 5,186 | 112 |
| Hatters' fur | 428,000 | 306,000 | 15,000 | 107,000 | 2,016 | 53 |
| Artificial flowers | 577,000 | 344,000 | 1,000 | 232,000 | 3,593 | 65 |
| Needles and pins | 1,599,000 | 728,000 | 25,000 | 846,000 | 13,252 | 64 |
| Laundries and dyeing (private) | 9,314,000 | 2,054,000 | 99,000 | 7,161,000 | 130,653 | 55 |
| Laundries (army)* | 8,534 | 1,710 | — | 6,824 | 120 | 57 |
| Printing, binding (private) .. | 24,597,000 | 8,571,000 | 738,000 | 15,288,000 | 172,677 | 89 |
| Newspapers, &c. | 13,237,000 | 4,429,000 | 185,000 | 8,623,000 | 45,303 | 190 |
| Printers' requisites (type, &c.) | 928,000 | 290,000 | — | 638,000 | 6,269 | 102 |
| Stationery (private firms) .. | 4,186,000 | 2,224,000 | 95,000 | 1,867,000 | 25,156 | 74 |
| Cardboard box | 2,011,000 | 941,000 | 13,000 | 1,057,000 | 20,379 | 52 |
| Pen and pencil | 729,000 | 232,000 | 10,000 | 487,000 | 6,307 | 77 |
| Plate and jewellery | 8,563,000 | 4,848,000 | 130,000 | 3,585,000 | 37,997 | 94 |
| Watch and clock | 606,000 | 218,000 | 12,000 | 376,000 | 5,279 | 71 |
| Musical instruments | 1,867,000 | 788,000 | 22,000 | 1,057,000 | 10,117 | 104 |
| Billiard and sports requisites | 1,154,000 | 498,000 | 3,000 | 653,000 | 6,374 | 102 |
| Toys and games | 288,000 | 148,000 | 2,000 | 138,000 | 2,387 | 58 |
| Ivory and fancy goods | 2,235,000 | 1,247,000 | 11,000 | 977,000 | 12,592 | 78 |
| Photographic requisites | 209,000 | 90,000 | — | 119,000 | 1,011 | 118 |
| Printing, &c. (G.P.O.)* | 9,398 | 4,727 | 19 | 4,652 | 37 | 126 |
| Printing, &c. (ordnance survey)* | 76,670 | 12,762 | — | 63,908 | 432 | 148 |
| Timber | 16,166,000 | 9,914,000 | 51,000 | 6,201,000 | 74,564 | 83 |
| Furniture | 17,969,000 | 8,635,000 | 89,000 | 9,245,000 | 91,412 | 101 |
| Wooden crates and boxes | 2,942,000 | 1,796,000 | 3,000 | 1,143,000 | 12,459 | 92 |
| Carriages, carts | 5,057,000 | 2,081,000 | — | 2,976,000 | 36,132 | 82 |
| Brushes | 1,802,000 | 954,000 | — | 848,000 | 11,014 | 77 |
| Coopering | 1,115,000 | 672,000 | — | 443,000 | 4,884 | 91 |
| Basket and wicker work | 426,000 | 185,000 | — | 241,000 | 3,598 | 87 |
| Fellmongery | 2,201,000 | 2,054,000 | — | 147,000 | 1,764 | 83 |
| Saddlery, harness, and cartgear | 2,228,000 | 1,135,000 | 20,000 | 1,073,000 | 15,741 | 68 |
| Travelling bags and leather go'ds | 1,267,000 | 745,000 | — | 522,000 | 6,777 | 77 |
| Canvas goods and sacks | 2,069,000 | 1,556,000 | — | 513,000 | 7,372 | 70 |
| India-rubber | 8,908,000 | 5,939,000 | — | 2,969,000 | 24,404 | 124 |
| Cement | 3,690,000 | 1,760,000 | — | 1,930,000 | 14,408 | 134 |
| Asbestos and boiler coverings .. | 638,000 | 320,000 | — | 318,000 | 2,330 | 136 |
| Wigmakers | 99,000 | 43,000 | — | 56,000 | 870 | 64 |
| H.M. Office of Works, Blind and Carpet Stores | 3,482 | 1,200 | — | 2,282 | 35 | 65 |
| Building and contracting | 87,967,000 | 38,609,000 | — | 42,954,000 | 51,961 | — |
| Heating, &c. | 2,885,000 | 1,277,000 | — | 1,565,000 | 14,144 | — |
| Slate quarries | 1,148,000 | 104,000 | — | 1,044,000 | 14,240 | — |
| Limestone quarries | 1,908,000 | 495,000 | — | 1,413,000 | 16,188 | — |
| Other Quarries, except iron | 3,775,000 | 534,000 | — | 3,241,000 | 43,184 | — |
| Misc. factories & workshops .. | 7,813,000 | 2,998,000 | — | 4,764,000 | 50,822 | — |
| Gas undertakings :— | | | | | | |
| (a) Companies | 20,838,000 | 9,292,000 | — | 11,546,000 | 54,946 | — |
| (b) Public authorities | 10,769,000 | 5,037,000 | — | 5,732,000 | 28,585 | — |
| Waterworks undertakings :— | | | | | | |
| (a) Companies | 2,172,000 | 445,000 | — | 1,727,000 | 4,716 | — |
| (b) Public authorities | 8,437,000 | 1,110,000 | — | 7,327,000 | 17,343 | — |
| Electricity undertakings :— | | | | | | |
| (a) Companies | 3,182,000 | 1,186,000 | — | 1,996,000 | 8,499 | — |
| (b) Public authorities | 5,721,000 | 2,149,000 | — | 3,572,000 | 14,119 | — |
| *Local authorities, E. & W. | 17,031,000 | 7,124,000 | — | 9,907,000 | 142,653 | — |
| *Local authorities, Scotland .. | 1,616,000 | 566,000 | — | 1,050,000 | 15,445 | — |
| *Local authorities, Ireland | 1,308,000 | 362,000 | — | 946,000 | 26,692 | — |
| Canal, dock, harbour, etc. | 862,000 | 282,000 | — | 580,000 | 7,353 | — |
| Tramways and light railways .. | 631,000 | 327,000 | — | 304,000 | 4,441 | — |

(a) In these cases the net output includes duty. * No allowance allowed for profit.

IRISH IMPORTS AND EXPORTS IN 1905 & 1909.

| | IMPORTS. | | EXPORTS. | |
|---|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | 1905. | 1909. | 1905. | 1909. |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| I. Farm produce, food, and drink— | | | | |
| (a) Live stock | 295,503 | 278,809 | 12,880,858 | 14,873,426 |
| (b) Dead meat, bacon, &c. | 2,340,416 | 2,653,323 | 2,831,590 | 3,796,613 |
| (c) Eggs, poultry, butter, &c. | 512,724 | 608,270 | 7,629,950 | 7,750,943 |
| (d) Fish | 277,521 | 323,656 | 403,425 | 724,476 |
| (e) Fruit and vegetables | 780,328 | 1,037,447 | 421,483 | 490,918 |
| (f) Grain, flour, meals, &c. | 7,314,490 | 8,270,133 | 611,294 | 840,363 |
| (g) Feeding stuffs | 3,752,944 | 5,007,091 | 256,539 | 457,917 |
| (h) Tea, coffee, cocoa, sugar, &c. | 3,007,100 | 3,505,577 | 16,705 | 17,069 |
| (i) Tobacco and snuff | 687,226 | 934,709 | 1,105,999 | 1,432,608 |
| (j) Wines, spirits, beer, &c. | 1,385,798 | 1,108,105 | 3,944,763 | 3,658,908 |
| (k) Other provisions and food stuffs | 661,961 | 831,391 | 1,244,328 | 1,008,004 |
| Total of farm produce, &c. | 21,016,011 | 24,558,511 | 31,346,934 | 35,050,275 |
| II. Raw materials:— | | | | |
| (a) Coal, coke, &c. | 2,261,552 | 2,600,103 | — | — |
| (b) Wood, hewn and sawn | 1,155,032 | 1,300,665 | 250,104 | 245,022 |
| (c) Stones, slates, metal ores, &c. | 395,303 | 398,500 | 172,160 | 291,302 |
| (d) Fats | 223,072 | 471,265 | 404,727 | 625,978 |
| (e) Hides, skins, wool, &c. | 221,323 | 346,432 | 1,120,680 | 1,410,268 |
| (f) Flax | 1,777,311 | 1,912,667 | 111,294 | 169,043 |
| (g) Other textile raw materials | 1,887,007 | 1,911,396 | 1,161,559 | 1,396,662 |
| (h) Other raw produce | 399,421 | 419,696 | 293,150 | 448,377 |
| Total of raw materials | 8,320,051 | 9,420,724 | 3,513,674 | 4,586,950 |
| III. Manufactured goods:— | | | | |
| (a) Textiles:— | | | | |
| (1) Yarns, thread, rope, &c. | 1,813,644 | 2,265,312 | 2,030,805 | 2,160,556 |
| (2) Piece goods, apparel, &c. | 10,324,373 | 12,528,453 | 10,272,193 | 15,284,987 |
| (b) Leather goods, &c.:— | | | | |
| (1) Leather | 495,446 | 599,321 | 93,144 | 111,741 |
| (2) Boots, shoes, and india-rubber | 1,841,303 | 2,193,763 | 95,798 | 151,275 |
| (c) Metals and manufactures, chiefly of metal:— | | | | |
| (1) Metals and metal castings, &c. | 3,113,756 | 2,966,303 | 252,183 | 258,086 |
| (2) Machinery, motors, ships, &c. | 3,361,958 | 3,364,612 | 3,292,537 | 2,976,681 |
| (d) Wooden articles, furniture, &c. | 955,367 | 1,051,690 | 307,879 | 310,376 |
| (e) Paper, stationery, books, &c. | 989,142 | 1,085,401 | 306,438 | 356,668 |
| (f) Bricks, china, glass, &c. | 800,983 | 846,531 | 13,596 | 23,579 |
| (g) Chandlery, oils, paints, &c. | 1,609,489 | 1,851,778 | 141,921 | 115,650 |
| (h) Chemicals, fertilisers, dye stuffs | 1,035,901 | 1,123,147 | 188,471 | 211,354 |
| (i) Miscellaneous articles | 82,028 | 91,609 | 116,925 | 130,814 |
| Total of manufactured goods | 26,423,390 | 29,967,920 | 17,112,100 | 22,091,767 |
| Gross total | 55,759,452 | 63,947,155 | 51,972,708 | 61,728,692 |

COST OF BRITISH DOMINATION IN IRELAND.

Mr. Churchill in the House of Commons, on February 15th, said:—

"To govern an agricultural country of 4,000,000 an Administration is maintained worthy of a second-class Power. In evidence before the Commission on Financial Relations it appeared that the cost of civil government was less than 10s. per head in Belgium. In Ireland, in 1906, it was 19s. 7d. per head. Since that time the cost of the government of Ireland has risen to £2 a head, and the population has fallen below the level of 1906. What control can an external Government, or what control can the Chief Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant exercise? What rigorous hands can he lay upon the internal cost of Irish Government? The external Government must be primarily interested in demanding acquiescence and tranquillity in a country governed by these strange methods. No efficient or rigorous

financial control can be exercised under the present system. Irish hands are the only hands that can adequately husband and employ Irish resources. Yet although the cost of the Government in Ireland is so extravagantly high, compared to a wealthier country such as Belgium, every Irishman, rich or poor, Nationalist or Orangeman, Catholic or Protestant, Liberal or Tory, is tempted to condone profusion, since, after all, there is no responsibility. Money is spent in Ireland, and much of it comes from England. How is it possible that value for the money can be obtained on such a basis where the whole nation have neither to bear the responsibility for spending, nor to face the unpopularity of raising the money, and where no one in the island is consulted, notwithstanding occasional economy, there can be nothing but waste by the one and extortion by the other."

SECTION V.—NATIONAL DEFENCE.

THE BRITISH FLEET AT A GLANCE.

What is the strength of the British Fleet? The following statement shows at a glance to what class each ship belongs, the year in which it was completed, and details of the armament. Ships shown in italics are building; the others are complete, or will be complete by March 31st, 1912.

The British Navy.

| BATTLESHIPS. | | | | BATTLESHIPS. | | | | | |
|-------------------------|----------|------------|--|--------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---|---|-------------------------------|
| Name. | Tonnage. | Completed. | Armament. | Name. | Tonnage. | Completed. | Armament. | | |
| DREADNOUGHTS | | | | PRE-DREADNOUGHTS. | | | | | |
| A* | 24500 | 1914 | 13·5in., ten; anti-torpedo guns, 4in. twenty-four; torpedo tubes, five. | Formidable. | 15000 | 1902 | 12in., four; 6in., twelve; 12 pr. eighteen; 3 pr. six; torpedo tubes, four. | | |
| B | | | | | | Bulwark ... | | 1901 | |
| C | | | | | | Formidable .. | | 1901 | |
| D | | | | | | Implacable .. | | 1901 | |
| King George V. | 24000 | 1913 | 13·5in., ten; anti-torpedo, 4in., twenty-four; torpedo tubes, five. | Irresistible .. | | 1902 | | | |
| Ajax | | | | | | London | | 1902 | |
| Audacious .. | | | | | | Prince of Wales. | | 1904 | |
| Centurion .. | | | | | | Queen | | 1904 | |
| King George V. | 22500 | 1913 | 13·5in., ten; anti-torpedo, 4in., twenty-four; torpedo tubes, five. | Venerable .. | | 1902 | | | |
| Orion. | | | | | Duncan. | 14000 | 1903 | 12in., four; 6in., twelve; 12 pr., twelve; 3 pr., six; torpedo tubes, four. | |
| Conqueror .. | | | | 1912 | Albemarle .. | | 1903 | | |
| Monarch .. | | | | 1912 | Cornwallis .. | | 1904 | | |
| Thunderer .. | | | | 1912 | Duncan | | 1903 | | |
| Orion | 1912 | Exmouth .. | 1903 | | | | | | |
| Colossus. | 20250 | 1911 | 12in., ten; anti-torpedo, 4in., twenty; machine six. | Russell | 1903 | | | | |
| Colossus | | | | | Canopus. | 12950 | 1901 | 12in., four; 6in., twelve; 12 pr., twelve; 3 pr., six; torpedo tubes, four. | |
| Hercules | | | | | Albion | | 1899 | | |
| Neptune | | | | | Canopus | | 1900 | | |
| St. Vincent. | 19250 | 1910 | 12in., ten; anti-torpedo, 4in., twenty; machine, six; torpedo tubes, five. | Glory | 1900 | | | | |
| Collingwood .. | | | | | Goliath | | 1900 | | |
| Vanguard .. | | | | | Ocean | | 1900 | | |
| St. Vincent .. | | | | | Vengeance .. | | 1902 | | |
| Bellerophon. | 18600 | 1909 | 12in., ten; anti-torpedo, 4in., sixteen; torpedo tubes, five. | Majestic. | 14900 | 1898 | 12in., four; 6in., twelve; 12 pr., sixteen; 3 pr., twelve; torpedo tubes, four. | | |
| Bellerophon .. | | | | | | Cæsar | | 1898 | |
| Péméraire .. | | | | | | Hannibal .. | | 1898 | |
| Superb | | | | | | Illustrious .. | | 1897 | |
| Dreadnought .. | 17900 | 1906 | 12in., ten; 12 pr., twenty-seven; torpedo tubes, five. | Jupiter | | 1897 | | | |
| | | | | | | Magnificent .. | | 1895 | |
| | | | | | | Majestic | | 1895 | |
| | | | | | | Mars | | 1897 | |
| | 23000 | 1914 | 13·5in., eight; 4in., twenty; torpedo tubes, two. | Prince George | | 1896 | | | |
| | | | | | | Victorious .. | | 1897 | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Lord Nelson. | 16500 | 1907 | 12in., four; 9·2, ten; 3in., eight- een; 3 pr. twelve; torpedo tubes (submerged). | ARMOURD CRUISERS. | | | | | |
| Agamemnon } | | | | 28000 | | 28 | | 1913 | DREADNOUGHT CRUISERS.* |
| Lord Nelson } | | | | | <i>A</i> † | | — | | 1914 |
| | | | | | <i>Queen Mary</i> .. | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| King Edward VII. | 16400 | 1905 | 12in., four; 9·2, four; 6in., ten; 12 pr., fourteen; torpedo tubes, five. | <i>Australia</i> .. | 20000 | 26 | 1912 | 13·5in., eight; 4in., twenty; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Africa | | | | | | | | | <i>New Zealand.</i> |
| Britannia .. | | | | | | | | | <i>Princess Royal</i> .. |
| Commonwealth. | | | | | | | | | <i>Lion</i> |
| Dominion .. | 11800 | 1904 | 10in., four; 7·5, fourteen; 14 pr., two; 6 pr., 4; torpedo tubes, two. | | 18750 | 26 | 1911 | 13·5in., eight; anti-torpedo, 4in., twenty-four; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Hibernia .. | | | | | | | | | Invincible. |
| Hindustan .. | | | | | | | | | Indefatigable |
| King Edward VII. | | | | | | | | | Invincible .. |
| Swiftsure. | 17250 | 1908 | 12in., eight; anti-torpedo guns, 4in., sixteen (Indefatigable 20 4in.); torpedo tubes, five (Indefatigable, two) | Indomitable .. | | | | | |
| New Zealand .. | | | | | | | | | |
| Swiftsure .. | | | | | | | | | |
| Triumph .. | | | | | | | | | |

* A B C D—Programme of 1911-12.

*These are Dreadnoughts, commonly known as "Battleship-cruisers." † Programme 1911-12.

The British Navy.

| Name. | Ton- nage. | Spd. kts. | Com- pleted | Armament. | Name. | Ton- nage. | Spd. kts. | Com- pleted | Armament. | |
|---------------------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|---|--|---------------|--------------|----------------|--|-----------------------|
| PRE-DREADNOUGHT CRUISERS. | | | | | Talbot. | | | | | |
| Minotaur. | | | | | Diana | | | 1899 | | |
| Defence .. | 14600 | 23 | 1908 | 9·2in., four ; | Dido | | | 1897 | | |
| Shannon .. | | | 1908 | 7·5in., ten ; | Doris | | | 1897 | 6in., eleven ; | |
| Minotaur .. | | | 1908 | torpedo tubes, three. | Eclipse | | | 1897 | 12 pr., nine ; | |
| Warrior. | | | | | Isis | 5600 | 19·5 | 1898 | 3 pr., seven ; | |
| Achilles .. | 13500 | 23 | 1907 | 9·2in., six ; | Juno | | | | 1898 | torpedo tubes, three. |
| Cochrane .. | | | 1907 | 7·5in., four ; | Minerva .. | | | | 1896 | |
| Natal | | | 1907 | 3 pr., twenty-four ; | Talbot .. | | | | 1896 | |
| Warrior .. | | | 1906 | torpedo tubes, three. | Venus | | | | 1897 | |
| Duke of Edinburgh. | | | | | Escout. | | | | | |
| Duke of Edinburgh | 13550 | 23 | 1905 | 9·2in., six ; | Adventure .. | | | 1905 | | |
| Bl'k Prince | | | 1906 | 6in., ten ; 3 pr., twenty-four ; torpedo tubes, three. | Attentive .. | | | 1905 | | |
| Devonshire. | | | | | Foresight .. | 2700 | 25 | 1905 | 12 pr., ten ; 3 pr., eight ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Antrim .. | 11000 | 22½ | 1905 | 7·5in., four ; | Forward .. | | | 1905 | | |
| Argyll | | | 1905 | 6in., six ; 12 pr., two ; 3 pr., twenty ; torpedo tubes, two. | Pathfinder .. | | | 1905 | | |
| Carnarvon .. | | | 1905 | | Patrol | | | 1905 | | |
| Devonshire .. | | | 1905 | | Sentinel .. | | | 1905 | | |
| Hampshire .. | | | 1905 | | Skirmisher .. | | | 1905 | | |
| Roxburgh .. | | | | | Gem. | | | | | |
| Monmouth. | | | | | Amethyst .. | 3000 | 23 | 1904 | 4in., twelve ; | |
| Berwick .. | | | 1903 | | Diamond .. | | | 1905 | 3 pr., eight ; | |
| Cornwall .. | | | 1904 | | Sapphire .. | | | 1905 | torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Cumberland .. | | | | | Topaz | | | 1904 | | |
| Donegal .. | 9800 | 23 | 1904 | 6in., fourteen ; 12 pr., ten ; pom-poms, ten ; 3 pr., three ; torpedo tubes, two. | Bristol. | | | | | |
| Essex | | | 1903 | | Dublin .. | 5250 | 25 | 1912 | 6in., eight ; 3 pr., four ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Kent | | | 1903 | | Chatham .. | | | 1912 | | |
| Lancaster .. | | | 1904 | | Bristol .. | | | 1910 | 6in., two ; 4in., ten ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Monmouth .. | | | 1903 | | Glasgow .. | 4800 | 25 | 1910 | | |
| Suffolk .. | 1904 | | Gloucester .. | 1910 | | | | | | |
| Drake. | | | | | Liverpool .. | | | 1910 | | |
| Drake | 14100 | 23 | 1902 | 9·2in., two ; 6in., sixteen ; 12 pr., four-teen ; 3 pr., two ; torpedo tubes, two. | Newcastle .. | | | 1910 | | |
| Good Hope .. | | | 1902 | | Dartmouth .. | 5250 | 25 | 1911 | 6in., eight ; 3 pr., four ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| King | | | 1903 | | Falmouth .. | | | 1911 | | |
| Alfred .. | | | 1903 | | Weymouth .. | | | 1911 | | |
| Leviathan .. | | | | | | Yarmouth .. | 1911 | | | |
| Cressy. | | | | | Sydney* .. | 5400 | 25 | 1912 | 6in., eight ; 3 pr., four ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Aboukir .. | 12000 | 21 | 1902 | 9·2in., two ; 6in., twelve ; 12 pr., four-teen ; 3 pr., three ; torpedo tubes, two. | Melbourne* .. | | | 1912 | 6in., eight ; 3 pr., four ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Bacelante .. | | | 1902 | | A† | | | 1913 | 6in., eight ; 3 pr., four ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| Cressy .. | | | 1901 | | B | | | 1913 | | |
| Euryalus .. | | | 1904 | | C | | | | | 1913 |
| Hogue .. | | | 1902 | | | | | | | |
| Sutlej | | | 1902 | | Boadicea. | | | | | |
| | | | | | A ('11-12) .. | | | 1913 | | |
| | | | | | Amphion .. | | | 1912 | | |
| | | | | | Active | | | 1912 | | |
| | | | | | Bellona .. | 3360 | 27·8 | 1910 | 4in., six ; smaller, eight ; torpedo tubes, two. | |
| | | | | | Blanche .. | | | 1910 | | |
| | | | | | Blonde .. | | | 1911 | | |
| | | | | | Boadicea .. | | | 1909 | | |
| PROTECTED CRUISERS. | | | | | * Building for the Commonwealth Government. † Three new cruisers (1911-12). | | | | | |
| Diadem. | | | | | In addition, the British Fleet possesses a number of obsolescent and obsolete cruisers, including :— | | | | | |
| Amphitrite | 11000 | 21 | 1900 | 6in., sixteen ; 12 pr., fourteen ; 3 pr., six ; torpedo tubes, three. | Powerful and Terrible (14,400 tons) ; Crescent, Edgar, Endymion, Gibraltar, Grafton, Hawke, Royal Arthur, St. George, Theseus (7,350 tons) ; Astræa, Bonaventure, Cambrian, Charybdis, Flora, Forte, Fox, Hermione (4,360 tons) ; Aeolus, Brilliant, Melpomene, Latona, Sappho, Seylla, Arius, Terpsichore (3,500 tons) ; Pandora class (2,200 tons), nine vessels. Many of these vessels are employed as tenders and for other subsidiary services. | | | | | |
| Andromeda .. | | | 1900 | | TORPEDO CRAFT. | | | | | |
| Argonaut .. | | | 1900 | | Submarines (effective) (60 built)..... 75 | | | | | |
| Ariadne .. | | | 1900 | | Destroyers (less than 11 years old)..... 114 | | | | | |
| Diadem .. | | | 1899 | | Destroyers (older) 91 | | | | | |
| Europa .. | | | 1899 | | Torpedo Boats 49 | | | | | |
| Niobe (Canada). | | | 1899 | | | | | | | |
| Spartiate .. | | | 1902 | | | | | | | |
| Challenger. | | | | | | | | | | |
| Challenger .. | 5800 | 21 | 1904 | 6in., eleven ; 12 pr., nine ; 3 pr., six ; torpedo tubes, two | | | | | | |
| Encounter .. | | | 1905 | | | | | | | |
| Highflyer. | | | | | | | | | | |
| Hermes .. | 5600 | 20 | 1889 | 6in., eleven ; 12 pr., nine ; 3 pr., six ; torpedo tubes, two | | | | | | |
| Highflyer .. | | | 1889 | | | | | | | |
| Hyacinth .. | | | 1900 | | | | | | | |

The German Navy.

BATTLESHIPS.

| Name. | Tonnage. | Completed | Armament. |
|----------------------------|----------|-----------|--|
| DREADNOUGHTS. | | | |
| • E. Weissenberg. | 25000 | 1914 | 12in., twelve; 5·9in., sixteen. |
| E. K. Friedrich W'm | | 1914 | |
| E. Odin | | 1913 | |
| Hagen. | 24000 | 1913 | 12in., twelve; 5·9in., twelve. |
| E. Hagen | | 1913 | |
| E. Aegir | | 1912 | |
| E. K. Friedrich der G'e | 1912 | 1912 | 12in., twelve; 5·9in., twelve. |
| Kaiser | | 1912 | |
| Ostfriesland | | 1912 | |
| Oldenberg .. | 22800 | 1912 | 12in., twelve; 5·9in., twelve; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Thuringen .. | | 1911 | |
| Ostfriesland | | 1911 | |
| Helgoland .. | 18500 | 1911 | 11in., twelve; 5·9in., twelve; 3·4in., sixteen; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Nassau. | | 1910 | |
| Baden | | 1910 | |
| Nassau | 1910 | 1910 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twenty-two; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Rheinland | | 1910 | |
| Westfalen | | 1910 | |
| PRE-DREADNOUGHTS. | | | |
| Deutschland. | 13200 | 1906 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twenty-two; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Deutschland | | 1907 | |
| Hannover .. | | 1907 | |
| Pommern .. | 1908 | 1908 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twenty-two; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Schlesien .. | | 1908 | |
| Schleswig | | 1908 | |
| Holstein. | 13200 | 1904 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twelve; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Braunschweig. | | 1904 | |
| Braunschweig | | 1906 | |
| Elsass | 1905 | 1905 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twelve; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Lothringen | | 1905 | |
| Hessen | | 1905 | |
| Preussen | 1905 | 1905 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twelve; torpedo tubes, six. |
| Wittelsbach Class, 1902-3, | | 1905 | |
| four 9in. guns, etc. | | 1905 | |
| Kaiser Class, 1898-1901, | 1905 | 1905 | 11in., four; 6·7in., fourteen; 3·4in., twelve; torpedo tubes, six. |
| four 9in. guns, etc. | | 1905 | |
| four 9in. guns, etc. | | 1905 | |

* Ersatz = Replacement.

ARMoured CRUISERS.

DREADNOUGHT CRUISERS.

| | | | | |
|--------------|-------|----|------|--|
| <i>.....</i> | 21500 | 25 | 1914 | Unknown. |
| <i>.....</i> | 21500 | 25 | 1913 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 21500 | 25 | 1912 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 22000 | 25 | 1912 | Probably 8-12 in. |
| <i>.....</i> | 22000 | 25 | 1911 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 22000 | 25 | 1911 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 19000 | 25 | 1910 | 11in., eight; 5·8in., ten; 20 pr. m sixteen; torpedo tubes, four. |
| <i>.....</i> | 19000 | 25 | 1910 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 19000 | 25 | 1910 | |

PRE-DREADNOUGHT CRUISERS.

| | | | | |
|--------------|-------|----|------|---|
| <i>.....</i> | 14760 | 25 | 1909 | 8in., twelve; 6in., eight; 3·4, sixteen; torpedo tubes, four. |
| <i>.....</i> | 14760 | 25 | 1909 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 14760 | 25 | 1909 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 11500 | 22 | 1907 | 8·2in., eight; 6in., sixteen; 3·4in., twenty; torpedo tubes, four. |
| <i>.....</i> | 11500 | 22 | 1907 | |
| <i>.....</i> | 11500 | 22 | 1907 | |

Also the First Bismarck, Roon, Yorck, Prinz Albrecht, Friedrich Karl, Prinz Heinrich, whose main armament is, except in the case of Prinz Heinrich, four 8·2 in. guns.

PROTECTED CRUISERS.

Freya, Hansa, Hertha, Victoria Luise, etc. (5,800 tons), dating from 1898-9.

ARMoured CRUISERS.

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|------|------|------|---|
| <i>Kaiserin Augusta</i> | 6300 | 21 | 1893 | 6in., twelve; 3·4in., eight; torpedo tubes, five. |
| <i>E. Seeadler</i> | 4500 | 25·5 | 1913 | 5·9in., two; 4in., ten. |
| <i>E. Geier</i> | | | 1913 | |
| <i>E. Bussard</i> | 4250 | 25·5 | 1912 | 4in., twelve. |
| <i>E. Falke</i> | | | 1912 | |
| <i>E. Condor</i> | 4250 | 25·5 | 1911 | 4in., twelve. |
| <i>E. Corm'r'n</i> | | | 1911 | |
| <i>Augsburg</i> | 3740 | 25·5 | 1911 | 4in., twelve. |
| <i>Köln</i> | | | 1911 | |
| <i>Kolberg</i> | 3740 | 25·5 | 1910 | 4in., twelve. |
| <i>Mainz</i> | | | 1910 | |

And the Dresden, Emden, Königsberg, Nueremburg, Stettin, Stuttgart, Bremen, Berlin, Dantzig, Hamburg, Leipzig, Luebeck, Muenchen, Arcona, Frauenlob, Undine, Amazone, Ariadne, Gazelle, Medusa, Niobe, Nympe, Thetis, the oldest of which dates from 1901.

TORPEDO CRAFT.

SUBMARINES (12 built) 26
DESTROYERS (less than 11 years old) 93
DESTROYERS (older) 5
TORPEDO BOATS (effective) none

Germany possesses smaller Pre-Dreadnought battleships than Great Britain, because they carry less coal and stores for distance service; they would be effective, however, for use in the North Sea.

In Pre-Dreadnought vessels Germany has 20 to the British 40, and there will be on March 31st, 1912, an even greater British preponderance in completed Dreadnoughts; Great Britain will have 20 complete—16 battleships and 4 battleship-cruisers, while Germany will have only 9—7 battleships and 2 battleship-cruisers. But in Germany will have building on the same date 12 ships—9 battleships and 3 battleship cruisers, while Great Britain will possess only 10—8 battleships and 2 battleship cruisers, apart from the two vessels—the Australia and New Zealand (to be completed in 1912)—ordered by the Commonwealth and New Zealand Governments, and therefore beyond the limits of the British naval programme. In the summer of 1912 Germany will have 13 Dreadnoughts completed to Great Britain's 20.

As an indication of the value of the Pre-Dreadnoughts, it may be mentioned that on March 31st, 1912, the ages of the Pre-Dreadnoughts of the two fleets will be as follows:—

Britain. Germany.

| | | |
|----------------------|----|----|
| Under 10 years old.. | 9 | 8 |
| Under 12 years old.. | 14 | 12 |
| Under 15 years old.. | 28 | 18 |

Britain's superiority in Pre-Dreadnoughts rests on ships which are reaching obsolescence.

For many years Germany laid down practically no big cruisers, while the British Fleet still contains the larger number of vessels laid down during the years of Franco-Russian rivalry which preceded the war in the Far East and the Entente Cordiale.

The Two-Power Standard applies only to heavily armoured ships—battleships—and the Admiralty have always urged that a great number of cruisers are essential, owing to our vast overseas trade, our dependence on sea-borne supplies, and the extent of the Empire.

BRITISH AND GERMAN RIVALRY.

A Promise of Economy.

Owing to the conditions under which naval expenditure was met down to the end of Mr. Balfour's administration, the usual comparative statements of naval expenditure are misleading. Apparently between 1904-5 and 1911-12 the expenditure upon the British fleet rose from £36,859,681 to £44,392,500.

Any deductions drawn from these crude figures would be inaccurate, owing to the fact that the Unionists during the whole of their administration raised a considerable amount each year by means of loans. The appended statement contains an accurate representation of the facts:—

GROSS NAVAL EXPENDITURE, 1904-12.

| UNITED KINGDOM. | | | | | | | GERMANY. |
|-----------------|--|---------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| Year. | Total Expenditure from Navy Votes (Net). | Annually in repayment of Loans. | Total Expenditure, Exclusive of Annuity. | Loans under Naval Works Acts. | Appropriations in Aid. | Grand Total of Naval Expenditure. | Total Naval Expenditure less Amount of non-corresponding Votes.* |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| 1904-5 | 36,859,681 | 634,238 | 36,225,443 | 3,402,575 | 1,434,057 | 41,062,075 | 10,009,838 |
| 1905-6 | 33,151,841 | 1,015,812 | 32,136,029 | 3,313,604 | 1,709,602 | 37,159,235 | 11,127,285 |
| 1906-7 | 31,472,087 | 1,094,309 | 30,377,778 | 2,431,201 | 1,790,562 | 34,599,541 | 11,786,911 |
| 1907-8 | 31,251,156 | 1,214,402 | 30,036,754 | 1,083,663 | 1,615,350 | 32,735,767 | 13,938,137 |
| 1908-9 | 32,181,309 | 1,264,033 | 30,917,276 | 948,262 | 1,646,181 | 33,511,719 | 16,118,197 |
| 1909-10 | 35,734,015 | 1,325,808 | 34,408,207 | — | 1,651,445 | 36,059,652 | 19,269,726 |
| 1910-11* | 40,603,700 | 1,322,752 | 39,280,948 | — | 1,808,824 | 41,089,772 | 20,691,722 |
| 1911-12* | 44,392,500 | 1,322,752 | 43,069,748 | — | 1,812,299 | 44,882,047 | 21,487,903 |

* Estimated.

† The total naval expenditure for Germany given above is arrived at by deducting the amounts for the following items, which are not covered in the British Navy Estimates: Fortifications and garrisons of naval forts, pilot and lighthouse service, meteorological service, secret service, grants to municipal authorities, Admiralty buildings, &c.

This expenditure excludes the following items covered by the British Navy Estimates: Retired pay, pensions, gratuities and compassionate allowances, civil superannuation, &c., allowances, coastguards, steamship, subsidies, reserves, loan charges and certain expenditure on big works.

Col. 3 refers to Loans under the Naval Defence and Naval Works Acts.

The actual expenditure on the fleet during the Liberal administration has consequently increased by only £3,822,972. During the past eight years the Admiralty have been meeting the current charges for the fleet, and at the same time repaying money borrowed during the period when the Unionists were in office.

During the same period Germany's expenditure has more than doubled. Next year's Estimates will show a reduction of expenditure. Since 1908 Germany has been laying down every year four large armoured ships—three battle-ships and one battle-ship-cruiser—two protected and 12 torpedo-boat destroyers, besides submarines. From next year and until 1917, in accordance with the Navy Act as amended in 1908, she will lay down each year only two large armoured ships, but will maintain her former production of other craft.

In a memorandum which accompanied the Act of 1908 it was shown that German naval expenditure in 1911 would amount to £22,031,788—and that in subsequent years it would amount approximately to the following sums:—£

| | | | |
|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| 1912 | 22,455,000 | 1915 | 20,085,000 |
| 1913 | 21,515,000 | 1916 | 20,485,000 |
| 1914 | 20,835,000 | 1917 | 20,885,000 |

If the German Navy Act is not amended with a view to increased shipbuilding, naval expenditure, when the ships now under construction have been completed, will fall to a sum ranging between 20 and 21 millions, according to the official memorandum. There is, however, reason to anticipate that the establishment charges of the increased fleet will cause these draft Estimates to be

increased before they are presented to the Reichstag.

In any case the *German Estimates* will in future never fall below 20 millions; in other words, Germany will not return to the modest expenditure of the past, and this will handicap the British Government in any effort to reduce the expenditure so long as the Two Power standard, however interpreted, is maintained.

Fortunately naval economy is being practised in the United States of America, as is indicated by the following figures:—

| Year. | Total Naval Expenditure. | New Construction, incl. Armament. |
|------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1909-10 .. | £28,990,592 | £7,976,897 |
| 1910-11 .. | 27,848,111 | 6,889,005 |
| 1911-12 .. | 26,584,571 | 5,343,789 |

It is anticipated that next year the American Navy Estimates will show a further reduction.

On the other hand, the outlay on their fleets by Austria-Hungary, Italy, Japan, Russia, and France still shows an upward tendency:—

| | 1909-10. | 1910-11. | 1911-12. |
|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Aust.-H'g'y | £4,068,333 | £3,545,727 | £5,152,382 |
| Italy | 6,537,118 | 8,341,760 | 8,379,940 |
| Japan | 7,346,879 | 7,729,068 | 8,803,015 |
| Russia | 9,650,167 | 9,723,574 | 13,270,376 |
| France | 13,353,825 | 15,023,019 | 16,705,382 |

In these five countries there is reason to anticipate that, in view of the recent events in Europe and the failure of the Peace propaganda to shape the course of international politics, the naval expenditure will continue to rise.

For German Fleet Organisation see page 97.

WHY THE BRITISH NAVY COSTS SO MUCH.

The familiar White Paper (265) on the naval expenditure of Great Britain shows that in 1911-12 the expenditure on the great fleets of the world was as follows, compared with the outlay 10 years ago:—

| | 1902. | 1911. | Inc. p.c. |
|------------------|------------|-------------|--------------|
| | £ | £ | |
| Great Britain .. | 31,003,000 | 44,392,000 | 43 |
| Germany | 10,045,000 | 22,032,000 | 119 |
| France | 12,185,000 | 16,705,000 | 37 |
| Russia | 10,446,000 | 13,270,000 | 27 |
| Italy | 4,840,000 | 8,380,000 | 73 |
| Aust.-Hungary.. | 1,955,000 | 5,152,000 | 163 |
| United States .. | 16,294,000 | 26,585,000 | 64 |
| Japan | 3,705,000 | 8,803,000 | 137 |
| Total..... | 90,383,000 | 145,319,000 | 60 |

Including the outlay of the British Oversea Dominions and the lesser Powers of the world, the aggregate sum now being devoted to naval armaments is nearly £200,000,000 annually.

The largest proportional increase in expenditure in Europe has been made by the three Powers which constitute the Triple Alliance, while the percentage of increase in the case of Great Britain has amounted to only 43 per cent.

But nevertheless the British Navy is shown to be costing rather more than twice as much as the Navy of Germany. Looking at the huge total of British naval expenditure it is natural that critics should marvel at the disproportion in the cost of the British and German fleets.

On March 16th, 1911, in introducing the Navy Estimates for 1911-12, the First Lord gave a complete explanation of this disproportion of expenditure in the two countries. He said:—

"I think the House, on examining the Estimates, will agree that these totals do not represent comparable quantities.

"For instance, on our Naval Estimates is a charge of £1,300,000 for interest on loans. In Germany, where a precisely similar system has been adopted of borrowing for expenditure on large works, the charge for interest on loans is not put on the Naval Estimates, but is borne by the Minister of the Interior, and I should be very happy to dump £1,300,000 on the Home Office Estimates. If I am going to compare my total with the German total, that £1,300,000 must be struck off.

"Then I have to include in my Estimates votes for pensions, retired pay, and other charges. In Germany these are charged, not to the Naval Estimates, but are borne by the Civil Estimates. Under similar circumstances the President of the Local Government Board would have to bear between two and three millions.

"Then, again, it is our national policy not to have conscription—a policy which I

strongly support. I think we pay very little for the maintenance of the voluntary system; but, still, we have to pay for it. It is not fair that that factor should be left out of account. If I were to charge in my Estimates only on the same scale as the German scale I should reduce my Vote for pay, victualling, clothing, medical charges, &c., by three millions.

"Taking all these items together, when comparing our Estimates with the German Estimates, you have to make a total deduction from my Estimates of 44 millions of no less than eight millions. So that the true comparison is 36 millions to 22 millions.

"That is not all. Of these 36 millions at least 2½ millions are spent on the maintenance of fleets that are kept entirely on foreign stations, on the grounds of Empire and trade—fleets in the Pacific, Indian, and Atlantic Oceans—I am not including the Mediterranean—which would not be available for service in the first line of battle in home waters in the event of war. That is an item which is a charge of Empire, and that ought not to be reckoned when we are making comparisons with other fleets which have no such charge.

"That would further reduce the 36 millions to 33½ millions. And that is the total it is proper to compare with the German 22 millions."

The British Navy has squadrons stationed in all parts of the world; the German Navy is largely concentrated in German waters. The British Admiralty maintain upwards of 70 men-of-war of various types—including six battle-ships—outside British waters, with expensive naval bases, which are the essential links in Imperial defence. Germany, on the other hand, has outside the Baltic and the North Sea only two large ships and 20 small craft, and only one foreign base.

EXPENDITURE ON NEW CONSTRUCTION.

| | 1909. | 1910. | 1911. |
|---------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| G. Britain .. | 11,227,194 | 14,957,430 | 17,566,877 |
| Germany .. | 10,177,063 | 11,392,856 | 11,710,859 |
| France | 4,517,766 | 4,977,682 | 5,876,659 |
| Russia | 1,758,487 | 1,424,013 | 4,318,045 |
| Italy | 2,190,707 | 2,181,200 | 2,277,302 |
| Austria | 1,908,331 | 1,583,333 | 3,125,000 |
| U.S.A. | 7,976,897 | 6,889,005 | 5,343,789 |
| Japan | 2,392,483 | 2,748,340 | 2,997,493 |

TONNAGE LAUNCHED.

| | 1908. | 1909. | 1910. |
|--------------------|---------|--------|---------|
| | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. |
| Great Britain | 77,202 | 92,957 | 176,582 |
| Germany | 104,971 | 83,184 | 101,830 |
| France | 21,205 | 96,308 | 21,880 |
| Russia | 1,834 | 4,371 | 6,130 |
| Italy | 21,021 | 2,404 | 19,642 |
| Austria | 10,034 | 37,122 | 16,384 |
| United States | 69,341 | 80,882 | 75,935 |
| Japan | 1,620 | Nil. | 43,900 |

BRITISH AND FOREIGN NAVAL GUNS.

There has recently been some controversy with reference to the armaments of British and German ships of the latest type—Dreadnoughts. The facts of the situation are as follows:—

The original British Dreadnoughts carry ten 12in. guns, with 24 3in., only eight of the big guns bearing on either broadside. In the nine subsequent ships—improved Dreadnoughts—all the 10 big guns bear on either broadside, and the ahead and astern fire is increased, while the 4in. gun—20 in number—replaces the 3in. weapon. The *Invisible* and her sister battle-ship cruisers carry eight 12in. guns—all bearing on either broadside—and sixteen 4in.

In the battle-ship *Orion* and the 15 other large armoured vessels—battle-ships and battle-ship cruisers—laid down since August, 1909, the 12in. gun is replaced by the new 13.5in. weapon. This new gun fires a shell of 1,250lbs., compared with 850lbs. of the 12in. gun as mounted in the earlier Dreadnoughts. The immense gain in power in the later ships is shown by the fact that while the displacement, as compared with the original Dreadnought, has increased by 34 per cent., the weight of the broadside fire has increased by 84 per cent., with very slight increase in the cost of construction.

America.—The armament of the American Dreadnoughts closely resembles that of the British vessels, the *Michigan* and *South Carolina* having eight, and later ones ten 12in. guns, with twenty-two 3in. or fourteen 5in. guns as anti-torpedo weapons. In the two American ships laid down in the winter of 1911 it is proposed to mount twelve 14in. guns throwing a shell weighing 1,600lbs.

Germany.—The earlier ships, in addition to twelve 11in. guns, mount a dozen 5.9in. quick-firers. They are apparently over-gunned, with inadequate coal supplies.

In the past year Germany began to pass into the Fleet ships mounting her new 12in. weapon. It is believed that all the German ships now building carry this gun, which throws a projectile weighing 981lbs. Krupp's are said to have successfully com-

pleted the trials of a 14in. gun, but there is no evidence that the German authorities have yet adopted it.

France, Japan, and all the other navies still continue to mount guns of 12in. calibre as their main battle weapons, and Italy has partially abandoned the twin-barbette in favour of a barbette with three guns.

The fighting power of a ship is judged not by the number of guns mounted, but by the maximum number which can be used at various bearings, and the fire of which can be effectively "controlled." It is noticeable that in the British and American Fleets, with practically the same efficient system of gunnery, the armament is on the simple all-big gun principle.

Professor Welch, at a recent meeting of the Institute of Naval Architects, submitted tables showing the weight of broadside which can be fired from the main armament of British and foreign ships calculated on their tons displacement:—

| | | Lbs. |
|----------------|-------------------|------|
| British: | Orion | 56 |
| | Colossus | 42 |
| | Dreadnought | 38 |
| German: | Helgoland | 43 |
| | Nassau | 33 |
| United States: | Texas | 52 |
| | Delaware | 43 |
| French | Courbet | 33 |

This expert calculation shows that as fighting machines the latest British battle-ships are superior to any of their contemporaries in foreign fleets.

In accordance with the new principle of gunnery adopted by the Admiralty, British battle-ships of the Dreadnought era carry no secondary battery. German battle-ships, on the other hand, mount a heavy battery of 6in. guns. British naval opinion holds that, owing to the range of the modern torpedo, ships could not approach each other in battle sufficiently close to enable these quick-firing guns to be used, and that the only weapons, besides the main battle guns, which can be usefully employed are light quick-firing guns for repelling attacks of torpedo craft.

RACE IN DREADNOUGHTS (105 Built or Building).

DREADNOUGHTS ON MARCH 31st, 1912.

| | Built. | Building. | Total |
|---------------------|--------|-----------|-------|
| Great Britain | 20 | 10 | 30* |
| Germany | 9 | 12 | 21 |
| United States | 6 | 6 | 12 |
| France | 6 | 4 | 10 |
| Japan | 3 | 5 | 8 |
| Russia | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Italy | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Austria | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Brazil | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Spain | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| Argentina | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Chile | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Turkey | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Total | 46 | 59 | 105 |

* Excluding the Australian and New Zealand ships.

In the summer of 1912 Germany will have 13 Dreadnoughts finished; at that date the British total will still be 20.

Armoured ships are constructed more rapidly in Great Britain than abroad, and the figures of ships building are consequently misleading, since the British vessels are completed before those of rival fleets.

This disparity may be illustrated by the following forecast of the probable number of Dreadnoughts which will be completed on March 31st, 1914, two years hence:—

| | compt'd. | | compt'd. |
|---------------------|------------|---------------|----------|
| Britain | 30 | Austria | 2 (or 3) |
| Germany | 19 (or 21) | Brazil | 3 |
| United States | 10 | Argentina .. | 2 |
| France | 8 | Spain | 2 |
| Japan | 6 | Chile | 1 |
| Russia | 4 | Turkey | 1 |
| Italy | 4 | | — |

German Fleet Organisation.

According to the provisions of the German Navy Act, the operation of which extends to 1917, the organisation of the German fleet will be as follows:—

Battle Fleet.—Two fleet flagships, four squadrons, each of eight battle-ships, eight large cruisers and 24 small cruisers for scouting purposes.

Foreign Fleet.—Eight large cruisers, 10 small cruisers.

Fleet Reserve.—Four battle-ships, four large cruisers, four small cruisers.

None of these battle-ships or cruisers is to be more than 20 years old. The fleet in home waters will be organised on the following scale:—

The 1st and 2nd Squadron form the Active Battle Fleet.

The 3rd and 4th Squadron form the Reserve Battle Fleet.

All the ships of the Active Battle Fleet and half the number of ships of the Reserve Battle Fleet are to be kept in permanent commission.

Ships not in commission may be commissioned temporarily for the manoeuvres.

The Navy Act also makes provision for the automatic increase of the personnel in accordance with the following schedule:—

Full complements for ships of the Active Battle Fleet, one-half of the torpedo boats, schoolships, and special vessels.

Nucleus crews (technical personnel two-thirds, and for the rest one-half of the full complement), for the Reserve Battle Fleet and the second half of the torpedo boats.

One-and-a-half the number of men, &c., required for ships serving abroad.

The men necessary for shore service.

An excess of 5 per cent. on the total numbers provided for under these various headings.

Australian Defence.

The scheme drafted by Admiral Sir Reginald Henderson for the *Australian Commonwealth* involves an annual expenditure, exclusive of construction, of some 5 millions sterling. Their existing plan provides for the construction of an Australian unit of the Pacific Fleet; the new scheme recommends the building in the next 22 years of a self-contained Australian squadron.

| Present Australian Fleet under Actual Construction. | The Henderson Scheme. |
|--|--------------------------|
| 1 Dreadnought Cruiser. | 8 Dreadn't Cruisers |
| 3 Bristols. | 10 Protected Cruisers. |
| 6 Destroyers. | 18 Destroyers. |
| 3 Submarines. | 12 Submarines. |

The cost of construction under the Henderson scheme is 23 millions, and of dock accommodation 17 millions. The personnel contemplated is 15,000 men, and provision is to be made for the local manufacture and supply of guns, ammunition, &c.

In 1918 Australia would have 23 warships in commission, 42 in 1923, 52 in 1933. The naval bases are to be at Sydney and Fremantle.

The Australian Navy is to be manned by two classes, the Permanent Naval Forces and the Citizen Naval Forces. The former are bound to continuous service; the latter are volunteers who are not bound in time of peace to continuous service, and are not ordinarily entitled to pay in peace.

The actual Australian fleet consists of three torpedo-boat destroyers. Building are one Dreadnought cruiser, the "Australia," launched on October 25th, 1911; three protected cruisers, 2nd class, the "Sydney," "Melbourne," and "Brisbane." Three submarines are also under construction.

Canada possesses two obsolescent cruisers, the "Niobe" and the "Rainbow," used as training ships.

STRENGTH OF THE WORLD'S FLEETS.

In the appended table is given a complete enumeration of all the men-of-war of the eight chief navies of the world, showing the vessels built and building. In the case of battle-ships and armoured cruisers, vessels of the Dreadnought and pre-Dreadnought types are classified separately for convenience, but the Dreadnought cruisers, it should be added, carry the same type of heavy gun as the Dreadnought battle-ships, but sacrifice a measure of armour protection for increased speed.

In the British totals, no account has been taken of the two Dreadnought cruisers New Zealand and Australia, and other vessels building at the expense of the Commonwealth and New Zealand Governments.

The standing of the fleets is as follows:—

| | Britain. | Germany. | U. States. | France. | Japan. | Russia. | Italy. | Austria. |
|------------------|----------|----------|------------|---------|--------|---------|--------|----------|
| Battle-ships: | | | | | | | | |
| Dreadnoughts .. | 22 | 16 | 12 | 10 | 8 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Pre-D'noughts .. | 23 | 15 | 16 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 |
| Older Ships .. | 15 | 5 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 6 |
| Arm'd Cruisers: | | | | | | | | |
| D'nought C'rs .. | 8 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pre-Dreadn't. | | | | | | | | |
| Cruisers | 42 | 9 | 15 | 15 | 13 | 6 | 7 | 3 |
| Protected C'rs.: | | | | | | | | |
| 2nd Class | 41 | 6 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 8 | 3 | |
| 3rd Class | 36 | 36 | 14 | 21 | 13 | 2 | 15 | 60 |
| Torpedo Craft: | | | | | | | | |
| Destroyers .. | 205 | 113 | 42 | 85 | 64 | 99 | 29 | 12 |
| Torpedo Boats .. | 54 | 48 | 32 | 191 | 48 | 32 | 73 | 42 |
| Submarines .. | 79 | 24 | 35 | 84 | 14 | 35 | 19 | 12 |

THE ARMIES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

The military forces of the British Crown include:—

(1) The forces in the United Kingdom and its dependencies, which are directly under the British War Office.

(2) The Indian Army, consisting of that portion of the British Army which is in India, practically controlled by the War Office, and the "Indian," i.e., native Army, under the Government of India. Both are charged on the Indian Estimates.

(3) The forces of the overseas dominions, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, controlled and paid for by the respective Governments.

The co-ordination of these three branches was considered at the 1909 Conference for the Military and Naval Defences of the Empire.

The higher units of organisation in the British Army are:—

(a) The division of three infantry brigades (12 battalions), the divisional artillery of 76 guns, two companies mounted infantry, and two companies engineers—strength (combatants only) about 16,000;

(b) The cavalry division of four cavalry brigades with horse artillery; and

(c) The brigade (in the case of infantry 4 battalions, and in that of cavalry three 3-squadron regiments).

Besides cavalry brigades there are mixed brigades of cavalry, mounted infantry, and horse artillery, called "mounted brigades." The Horse and Field Artillery is organised in groups called "brigades" of two or three 6-gun batteries.

The general service army at its maximum under present conditions is estimated officially at:—

| | |
|--|----------------------------|
| 1 Cavalry Division and 2 Mounted Brigades .. | } From Home. |
| 6 Divisions | |
| 1 Cavalry Brigade | } From Colonial Garrisons. |
| 1 Division | |
| 8 Mounted Brigades | } From India. |
| 9 Divisions | |

Before considering the British forces in detail it may be well to summarise the available numbers on January 1st, 1911. The strength of the Regulars at home and in the Colonies was 166,331; Army Reserve, 136,337; Special Reserve (including a few unconverted militia), 66,997; Territorial Force (including officers of the O.T.C., permanent staff, and Isle of Man volunteers), 270,110; Channel Isles, Malta, Bermuda local forces, 5,807; Colonial and Native Indian corps in Imperial service, 8,353; British forces on Indian Establishment, 77,804; total, 731,739. This total does not include the native Indian Army.

The forces of the Crown are divided into two classes: (a) **Regular**, (b) **Territorial**. The former Militia has been converted into a "special reserve" for the regular army, and the Volunteers and Imperial Yeomanry consolidated as the Territorial Force (1907). All these are voluntarily enlisted.

The regular army is available at all times for general service. It includes embodied troops and the Army Reserve. About half its strength is abroad—in India and the Colonies. The British regulars who form the Indian Army are, as has been said, paid for by the Indian taxpayer, but they are under the control of the British War Office. The Indian charges in 1911-12 are £18,353,700 for an army of 234,803 men. Of these troops over 75,000 are British regulars. In India the units are practically on a war footing; at home the battalions have of course, reduced establishments, and on mobilisation would complete from the Reserve. Recruits for the regular army are accepted between the ages of 18 and 25, and enlistment is in most cases for seven years with the colours and five in the Reserve. Recruits in 1910 numbered 26,434, a decrease of 7,403 as compared with 1909.

Strength and Distribution of the Regular Army, October 1st, 1910.

| | Infantry | Cavalry. | Artillery | Engrs. | Technical and Depart'l. | Colonial Troops. | Indian Troops on Imper'l Service. | Total. |
|---------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|--------|-------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------|
| Home | 73,243 | 10,919 | 25,215 | 6,583 | 11,828 | — | — | 127,788 |
| India | 54,760 | 5,909 | 16,205 | 374 | 569 | — | — | 77,817 |
| Other Stations: | | | | | | | | |
| Mediterranean | 7,218 | — | 3,051 | 840 | 633 | 441 | — | 12,133 |
| Egypt | 4,497 | 703 | 356 | 165 | 326 | — | — | 6,047 |
| Ceylon and Straits S. .. | 924 | — | 644 | 245 | 161 | 109 | 1,566 | 3,649 |
| China | 2,129 | — | 982 | 313 | 271 | 423 | 2,403 | 6,521 |
| S. Africa | 5,939 | 2,397 | 1,370 | 607 | 1,093 | — | — | 11,406 |
| W. Africa | — | — | 249 | 67 | 57 | 2,168 | — | 2,541 |
| Various, on Passage, &c. | 1,851 | 575 | 571 | 320 | 242 | 762 | — | 4,321 |
| Total other Stations | 22,558 | 3,675 | 7,223 | 2,557 | 2,783 | 3,903 | 3,969 | 46,668 |
| Grand Totals .. | 150,561 | 20,503 | 48,643 | 9,514 | 15,180 | 3,903 | 3,969 | 252,273 |
| Army Reserve | 82,844 | 11,033 | 25,172 | 5,240 | 11,423 | — | — | 135,712 |
| Special Res'Ve | 46,852 | 1,861 | 6,553 | 1,139 | 959 | — | — | 56,354 |

THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

The troops at home are now fully organised, in view of forming in war a field army of six divisions, one cavalry division, two mounted brigades, &c., composed as follows: 73 battalions, 42 squadrons, 26 companies mounted infantry, 84 batteries, a total effective of 163,279 men.

NUMBER OF OFFICERS AND MEN REQUIRED FOR THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

| Arm. | War Establishment, incl. 1st reinforcements | |
|--|--|--------------|
| | Officers. | Other Ranks. |
| Staff and miscellaneous appointments | 309 | 657 |
| Cavalry | 378 | 9,294 |
| Artillery | 736 | 30,091 |
| Royal Engineers | 320 | 7,418 |
| Infantry* | 2,461 | 88,848 |
| Technical and Departmental Troops† | 1,669 | 26,971 |
| Total | 5,873 | 163,279 |

*Including mounted infantry.

†i.e., Army Service, Royal Army Med., Army Vet., Army Ordnance, Pay and Postal Service, Police, and Army Motor Reserve.

These figures should be compared arm by arm with the numbers given on the preceding page of troops of the Regular Army, Army Reserve, and Special Reserve, from which they must be drawn.

The officers and men stated to be available for service in the Expeditionary Force in June, 1910, were:—

| | Officers. | Men. |
|-----------------------|-----------|---------|
| Regulars | 6,703 | 90,953 |
| Army Reserve | 1,952 | 116,815 |
| Special Reserve | 1,949 | 43,713 |
| Total | 10,604 | 251,481 |

The gross number of men serving at home and in the two Reserves was considerably in advance of these figures.

Until the cavalry now in South Africa becomes available the duties of divisional cavalry are performed by mounted infantry.

It was stated by Lord Haldane in the

House of Lords in April, that the combatant personnel of the Expeditionary Force is now complete in all arms. Stores, weapons, and ammunition are ready. The deficient provision in the Army Service Corps, the Army Medical Service, and the Veterinary Service are being made good. The first four divisions could mobilise within 10 days, the six within 21 days. This statement must be made with the reservation that there is a serious *shortage of horses*.

By law horses and vehicles suitable for military purposes may on mobilisation be taken compulsorily at a just price. The list of such horses and vehicles was until recently in the care of the police, who, though they took a census of horses, had no means of classifying them. In future the County Associations are to use the powers of the police in this respect.

On mobilisation it would be necessary to find 42,000 horses for the Regulars and 86,000 for the Territorials, a total of 138,000. The War Office register of horses accounts for 12,000, which are immediately available. It is estimated that throughout the country there are 500,000 horses (about one-third of the number of horses given in the live stock returns published by the Board of Agriculture), which are suitable for the work; the business of classifying and registering them for mobilisation must be carried out by the County Associations, to each of which a certain quota is allotted. The responsibility of selection, however, rests with the General Officer Commanding-in-Chief in the district in which the county is situated.

The strength of the Army Service Corps will shortly be reduced, owing to the adoption of motor-transport. The Government is prepared to subsidise motor-lorries carrying three tons or 1½ tons, with an average speed of 12 and 10 miles an hour respectively, on the understanding that the vehicles will be received for War Office purchase in a period of national danger.

An Air Battalion has now been formed at Aldershot, and the Estimates of 1911-12 provide £133,000 for military aeronautics. Particulars of Army Aviation are given in the article "Aviation."

THE INDIAN ARMY.

The Indian Army is organised into a Northern Army and a Southern Army (head-quarters, Rawal Pindi and Poona respectively). These two armies are composed of British and Native troops, in a proportion roughly of 1 British to 2 Native soldiers. This was decided upon after the great Mutiny of 1857, since which date also the Native Army has had no horse or field artillery. The Native Army is commanded by British, assisted by Native officers, a cavalry or infantry regiment having normally 13 British and 18 Native officers. The latter are, as a rule, veteran soldiers who have risen from the ranks.

From the British and Native Troops

serving in India 8 mounted brigades and 9 divisions are stated to be available for general service in war.

The established strength of British and Native Armies in India varies little from year to year. The following figures are for 1909-10:—

| | |
|--|---------|
| British Army | *75,000 |
| Native Army— | |
| British | 2,409 |
| Native | 159,446 |
| | 236,975 |
| Imperial Service Troops (native).. | 20,736 |
| Native Reserve | 35,736 |
| Volunteers (British and Eurasian, including Cadets) | 87,040 |

*Excluding 346 Royal Engineers.

THE TERRITORIAL FORCE.

In peace time the Territorial Force is administered by "County Associations," local committees, half military, half civil, which are supplied with the necessary funds, and, under the general supervision of the War Office, provide for the routine needs of the various services.

The strength of the Force in October, 1911, was 9,475 officers and 254,692 other ranks a total of 264,167 out of an establishment of 311,000. During the first two months of the year there was an increase of 5,400 officers and men.

Mr. Haldane stated in October that out of 45,000 time-expired Territorials, 25,000 had re-engaged. The number who attended camp for the full period of training in 1911 were 6,975 officers and 148,318 other ranks; for eight days, 1,011 officers and 75,523 other ranks; for shorter periods, 63 officers and 330 other ranks.

Liability for foreign service has been accepted by 1,055 officers and 17,189 men, including the whole of King Edward's Horse and of the 7th Bn. Middlesex Regiment.

The term of service is 4 years (re-engagements allowed), with training liabilities amounting to a minimum of 10-20 drills and a minimum of 7 days (14 allowable) in camp every year. The Force is organised as a self-contained army, in 14 divisions and 14 mounted brigades, and by units, into 56 regiments of yeomanry, 14 horse batteries, 56 brigades field and mountain artillery, 14 batteries heavy artillery, 192 battalions of infantry, 10 battalions cyclists, &c. The peace and war strengths are the same, the newly-formed reserve being rather of the feature of a "first reinforcement" than an augmentation.

In the summer of 1909, steps were taken for the formation of a Territorial Reserve,

the strength of which is to be about 80,000. At the same time two other forces were outlined, the Technical Force Reserve, and the Veteran (now called National) Reserve. The Technical Reserve is to consist of men who, though they never have held commissions or served in the ranks, may by special aptitudes render special services in emergency. The establishment of the National Reserve is an attempt to organise and utilise the services of men who have already passed through the Regular or the Territorial forces. The first organised County contingent was that of Surrey. In a very short time after recruiting had begun the National Reserve in the City and County of London alone numbered 347 officers and 4,115 men. The National Reserve is really a register of trained officers and men who, without undertaking any definite liability, would probably be of the utmost service in an emergency.

The Estimates for 1911-12 show a net increase of £106,000 for the Territorial Force, and it is hoped that some of the difficulties of the County Associations will be solved by more liberal provision for establishment, travelling, horses, boot-money, training, and possibly separation allowance, during the year.

The organisation of Cadet Corps, uniformed and ununiformed, has been begun by the County Associations, under whom all such bodies "re-engaged" by the War Office are placed both for administration and for training.

In 1910-11 51 units, consisting of 122 companies of cadets, were recognised, and many others were awaiting recognition. Another auxiliary to the Territorial Force, the Voluntary Aid Service, numbered 403 detachments, 80 per cent. of which were raised under the Red Cross Society. 99 of these detachments were composed of men; the remaining 308 of women.

THE OVERSEAS DOMINIONS.

The Canadian militia has, since 1905, been entirely responsible for local defence. Every Canadian citizen is liable to service from the age of 18 to that of 60. Its peace establishment is 50,000. There is a small permanent force of 4,005 men.

The Canadian military organisation was inspected in the summer of 1910 by General Sir John French. He reported to the Dominion Government that the numbers proposed under the present war establishment, 100,000, are sufficient, but that the existing disproportion in the strength of the various arms should be remedied, and that higher organisation should be re-cast in view of war requirements.

Australia.—Mr. Deakin's Defence Act of 1903 provided for a mild form of universal compulsory training, and has been amended by the Defence Acts of 1909 and 1910. The forces have hitherto been organised on a war establishment of 49,536 officers and men, with a peace establishment of 26,756. Its actual strength on June 30th, 1910, was 23,509.

Lord Kitchener's Defence Scheme for the Australian Commonwealth provides for the formation of an army which, in the seventh year of its existence, is calculated to cost about £1,884,000. The peace establishment of the new army is to amount to 80,000 men drawn from an available 1,295,000 souls of fighting age. Cadet training, consisting of six clear days annually, is to be continued between the ages of 18 and 19 and 24 to 25. Recruits at the age of 18 will already have undergone a fair course of military training as cadets, while marching, drill, and miniature rifle shooting begins even earlier, at the age of 12.

Compulsory military service for cadets was put into force on July 1st, 1910, 152,333 lads had presented themselves for registration up to the end of March. Of these about 28,000 were exempted. The scheme adopted on Lord Kitchener's recommendation by New Zealand is somewhat similar to the Australian one, but smaller in proportion. The war strength proposed is 30,000 men, and the eventual annual cost £400,000. The Union of South Africa has not yet dealt with her Defence question.

COMPULSORY OR VOLUNTARY SERVICE.

In the Memorandum on Compulsory Service drawn up by General Sir Ian Hamilton at Lord Haldane's request, it is pointed out that the first essential of a just military policy is a clear grasp of the aims towards which it is directed.

Armies are required either for:—

(1) Imperial defence of distant frontiers, such as those of Rome or Great Britain.

(2) Home defence where imminent peril overshadows the very existence of the State, as is the case in France and Germany.

(3) Home defence where the danger appears to be less imminent, as is the case in Great Britain to-day.

Obviously the armies of European continental States, which are raised for the defence of the home frontiers, are subject to quite different conditions from those which govern forces raised for Imperial service. Experience through the ages has shown that a long-range expeditionary army must be on the regular system, where men are trained in barracks by professional officers and N.C.O.'s, and it must be raised on a voluntary basis. A home defence army may be a militia, composed of citizens living in their own homes and undergoing specified training. The army, such as those of the

Continent, based on universal regular service for a moderately short period with the colours, is more than a home defence army and less than an expeditionary force; it is, in short, a short-range regular army. If then the force that is required for the British Empire must be a long-range force, it must be of regulars raised by voluntary enlistment, and, for reasons of economy, serving for a comparatively long period. It is argued that an army of this nature could not be maintained alongside of a compulsory home service army. At anyrate, there is no instance of a successful combination of the two systems, the nearest example being the French Colonial Army, which is relatively small.

Writing as an ex-Adjutant-General of the British Army, with ample recruiting experience behind him, Sir Ian Hamilton declares: "I regard as certain then—as certain, that is to say, as anything concerning the impulses of young Britons can be—that if we had universal continental conscription we should not be able to get the necessary number of volunteers from the ranks of the home army to keep our foreign service alive."

Compulsory Systems. Actual and Proposed.

The way in which the full strength of the nation is made available under universal service is usually this. All able-bodied males are on the registers of the army authorities from the time they attain the minimum age to the time they pass beyond the maximum. The men of each year constitute a contingent or class, and each contingent, on attaining the age of 20 or 21, joins the colours (after examination, adjudication of pleas for exemption, &c.) for two or three years' continuous service, passing then to the reserve, the second line, and the third line in succession. This is comparatively simple in cases where the military establishment is sufficient to absorb the annual contingents; but where, as is the case with most military States, they cannot all be absorbed, the just principle of service for all becomes the less just rule of liability for all and service for some, with the inevitable discontent arising from the process of selection.

The German liability to serve is:—

Two years with the colours (three in the cavalry or horse artillery). His name stands for seven years in the regular army and reserve, five years in the 1st Levy of the Landwehr, and till the time he is 40 in the 2nd Levy. If he is not taken for service with the colours at the due time or within a certain period, he automatically becomes a member of the special reserve (Ersatz Reserve), and has in theory to put in a few days' training.

The system of national service adopted by most British advocates of

compulsory service is embodied in the proposals of the National Service League. These proposals are a modification of the Swiss militia system, adopted by small States which dispense with permanent establishments, and meet their military requirements by putting all their men through a very short course of initial training, and subsequently calling up certain classes for periods of manœuvres. The scheme may be briefly stated:—

The whole manhood of the nation, subject to certain exemptions (service in the regular army, the navy, in the mercantile marine, or the police force, ministers of religion, the physically or mentally infirm, the eldest sons of widows), shall be liable for compulsory service on the New Year following his 18th birthday. In his first year the recruit is to receive four to six months' training, and in his second, third, and fourth years fifteen days' training, a course of musketry and certain drills will be required of him. In case of imminent national danger he will be liable to embodiment up to the age of 30 under the same conditions as those now applicable to the Territorial Force. He is not liable for service outside the United Kingdom.

The League also advocates that physical drill and military instruction should form part of the curriculum of all schools.

It is estimated that under this system 150,000 recruits would be called up annually, and that the total output would be 400,000 men organised in cadres, with 600,000 in reserve, the latter without clothes and equipment, however. The present Territorial Force would, of course, be abolished.

The cost of this force is estimated very differently by the National Service League and the War Office:—

| | | |
|---|------------|-------------|
| National Service League Est. War Office Est. | | |
| Cost of new scheme .. | £8,623,037 | £12,970,000 |
| Cost of Territorials and Special Reserve | 4,816,665 | 5,150,000 |
| Net increase in cost .. | 3,806,372 | 7,820,000 |

The difference, it will be seen, between the two estimates is about four millions.

General Sir Ian Hamilton sums up the various schemes put forward for increasing the military strength of the Empire. We summarise the suggestions and his comments.

| SUGGESTION. | COMMENT. |
|--|--|
| (1) The enlargement of the present overseas army. | Impracticable on any sufficient scale. |
| (2) Universal military service on the German model. | Costly and includes sacrifice of long-ranging power. |
| (3) Universal military service on a Special Reserve basis. | Ditto ditto. |
| (4) Compulsory, regular, short-range army, calling up only such a proportion of the available conscripts as will | Practicable. The additional cost would not be large. Recruiting for the Regulars would hardly be |

give it, when mobilised to war footing with its reserves, a strength equal to that of the existing Territorial force and the existing Expeditionary force of 6 divisions together, the new force being required, of course, to take over the present duties of both these.

(5) Compulsory service on a militia basis as proposed by the National Service League.

affected. Sum total of military force would hardly be affected, but it would be redistributed, the defence of these islands being strengthened at the expense of striking power.

Cost heavy, but not necessarily prohibitive. Would in his opinion be disastrous to the recruiting market for the Regular Army.

To these five schemes, all of them open to serious criticism, he adds his own:—

First line.—The Regular Army and the Special Reserve as we know them.

Second line.—The Territorial Force as existing, but improved by more liberal treatment by the Government.

Third line.—Legalisation of compulsory service for defence, only to become an effective demand in the last resort, if at any time the Empire should be fighting for bare life.

THE SHORTAGE OF OFFICERS.

In answer to a question put by Major Anstruther Grey in February, 1911, Lord Haldane made a statement as to the shortage of officers in the various lines of defence:—

| | |
|-------------------------|-------|
| Regular Army | 154 |
| Special Reserve | 1,198 |
| Territorial Force | 1,519 |

This makes a total shortage of 2,871.

The number of officers in the British and Indian establishments has been increased by 2,600 in the last five years. Hence the demand is considerably greater.

Candidates for infantry commissions in the regular battalions are forthcoming, but the large shortage in the Special Reserve is more difficult to fill. Under present conditions the Secretary for War stated in his annual memorandum that the Special Reserve would be unable to supply the extra officers required for the Expeditionary Force on mobilisation. The period of probationary training, originally twelve months for those who do not hold certificates from the

O.T.C., has been shortened to six months. To stimulate the supply of young officers for the Regular Army a number of prize cadetships, and the rough equivalent of scholarships at a university, are now offered at Woolwich and Sandhurst. A "recognised" school is inspected at least once in five years by the Board of Education or other recognised inspecting body, and it must maintain a contingent of the Officers' Training Corps.

Inaugurated only three years ago, the "O.T.C." now numbers 646 officers and 24,661 cadets; the senior division includes contingents from 21 universities and colleges, the junior division is furnished by 159 public schools. The training is admittedly on a much higher level than anything which obtained in the former University Volunteers and School Cadet Corps.

It is acknowledged that the real remedy for the shortage of officers would be improved pay, but to raise the level to that of the Engineers would add a million sterling to the Estimates.

THE ARMIES OF THE CHIEF MILITARY POWERS.

The following table shows the totals of Army expenditure of the chief military powers, with the peace strength and the approximate war strength of their armies.

The following figures are taken from the April No. of the Journal of the R.U.S.I. MILITARY EXPENDITURE. PEACE AND WAR STRENGTHS DURING 1910.

| | Military expenditure, 1910. | Peace Establishment. | Approx. War Strength. | | Military expenditure, 1910. | Peace Establishment. | Approx. War Strength. |
|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Aust.-Hungary. | £31,108,100 | 425,365 | 2,265,000 | Japan | £8,900,995 | 225,500 | 1,005,000 |
| Belgium' | 2,397,000 | 43,126 | 171,000 | Norway | 766,000 | 12,680 | 149,000 |
| Bulgaria | 1,592,318 | 56,606 | 400,000 | Portugal | 1,997,947 | 31,550 | 279,000 |
| Denmark | 1,245,000 | 16,300 | 111,000 | Roumania | 2,352,369 | 83,310 | 500,000 |
| France | 34,886,019 | 608,000 | 3,869,000 | Russia | 55,891,194 | 1,209,686 | 5,530,000 |
| Germany | 47,128,971 | 622,520 | 4,146,000 | Servia | 1,041,735 | 37,261 | 340,000 |
| Greece | 926,000 | 23,224 | 90,000 | Spain | 5,712,945 | 115,692 | 538,000 |
| Holland | 2,495,000 | 33,172 | 176,500 | United States. | 25,359,814 | 81,861 | 218,000 |
| Italy | 14,916,589 | 242,375 | 1,214,000 | Turkey | 11,604,187 | 231,000 | 1,175,000 |

STATE TELEPHONES.

Terms of Transfer from January 1st, 1912.

Since the Government took over the telegraphs in 1868 the acquisition of the National Telephone System, from the 1st of January, 1912, is the most important step taken in the direction of the nationalisation of public services:—

The telephone system has been in operation since 1880, under the license of the Postmaster-General, which automatically expires at the close of 1911. Under the agreement between the Postmaster-General and the National Telephone Company signed in 1905, and in accordance with the terms of the Telephone Transfer Act (1911), the company's business will be acquired on the following conditions:—

(1) All plant, land, and buildings, with reasonably suitable stores and spare plant,

will be taken over by the Post-office as it will stand on December 31st, 1911, no allowance being made for past or probable prospective profits or in respect to compensation for compulsory acquisition. If the parties do not agree as to the valuation, the price to be paid will be decided by the Railway Commissioners.

(2) The portion of the purchase money which may be payable in cash is to be met in part by the application of a sum, estimated at £1,600,000, due to the Post-office by the company in respect of subscriptions received in advance for telephone service after January 1st, 1912.

(3) A sum, not exceeding £4,000,000, is to be devoted to the development of the telephonic system in the United Kingdom.

Existing Business and Promised New Facilities.

When introducing the Telephone Transfer Bill in the Commons, the Postmaster-General said that the present service is quite inadequate. One extension Mr. Samuel has already decided upon is to grant an unlimited service for £3 a year to dwellers in remote rural districts, provided that six persons join in using a line. This concession, calculated alike to lessen the isolation of country life and to facilitate business, especially in the case of farmers, extends to all rural residents.

The Post Office is taking over a very extensive system, which has rapidly developed since 1905, when the purchase agreement was signed.

The position of the National Telephone Company in 1905 and 1910 is represented by the following figures:—

| | 1905 | 1910 |
|-----------------|---------------|---------------|
| Exchanges | 1,195 | 1,570 |
| Stations | 362,413 | 534,253 |
| Wire mileage .. | 751,792 | 1,253,890 |
| Messages | 1,052,545,624 | 1,454,682,840 |

The wires employed would encompass the circumference of the earth 50 times.

On June 30th, 1911, the capital expenditure of the company was £16,374,000, and its reserve fund stood at £4,200,000.

Of course, the Post Office itself has been doing a large and progressive business in telephonic work. Since 1897, when it acquired from the National Telephone Company the trunk lines, large advances have been made. For the year ended March 31st, 1911 (the date of the last available return) the position of the trunk lines, with the result of the year's working, was as follows:—

| | |
|---------------------------|------------|
| Exchanges | 678 |
| Trunk Circuits | 2,848 |
| Conversations | 30,100,068 |
| Capital Expenditure | £5,337,725 |
| Gross Revenue | £765,282 |

The Post Office has also established systems in London and the provinces, the number of telephones being as follows on March 31st, 1911:—

| | Telephones |
|-----------------|------------|
| London | 73,305 |
| Provinces | 36,650 |

Total 109,955

Including the Trunk system, the wire mileage worked by the Post Office on March 31st, 1911, was 660,144. The total capital expenditure on the date mentioned was £10,942,000.

An idea of the extent of the full Post Office service from January 1st, 1912, may be gained from the following statement, based on the latest figures:

| | |
|------------------------|-------------|
| Telephones | 650,000 |
| Wire Mileage | 1,914,000 |
| Capital Expended | £27,316,000 |
| Gross Revenue | £5,149,000 |
| Net Profits | £1,095,000 |

For the year ended 31st March, 1911, the Post Office received £340,000 in the shape of royalties from the National Telephone Company. In the same year, the Post Office telephones showed a small deficit of £42,000, compared with £83,000 in the previous year.

It is, therefore, clear that the Post Office will make a handsome profit from the outset of the amalgamation. This will be in sharp contrast to the telegraph service, which showed an excess of expenditure over revenue amounting to £1,182,000 in the year ended 31st March, 1911.

The Soya Bean.

A recently-developed industry is that of the manufacture of cattle food from the Soya Bean. This product, though cultivated for centuries in Manchuria, has only within the last few years come into extensive use in the Western world, but in those few years its consumption in Europe has increased

at a very rapid rate. In 1908 our net imports of "unenumerated seeds, for expressing oil therefrom" (in which Soya beans were then merged) amounted to £467,000; but in 1910 they had grown to £3,608,000, out of which Soya beans accounted for no less than £2,987,000.

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Woollen Merchant
and Shipper,
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Fine TROPICAL FLANNELS, smooth, soft and light, made from finest wools and beautiful colourings. 5/6 to 7/6 yard, double width.

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SECTION VI.—PARLIAMENT & POLITICS.

THE LIBERAL CABINET AND ITS UNIONIST PREDECESSOR.

| Office. | Salary. | Present Holder. | Holders of Office under Mr. Balfour, J'y, 1902—Dec., 1905. |
|--|---------|---|--|
| Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury. | £ 5,000 | Herbert Henry Asquith .. | Arthur James Balfour |
| Chancellor of the Exchequer. | 5,000 | David Lloyd George | { Charles Thomson Ritchie Joseph Austen Chamberlain |
| Lord High Chancellor.... | 10,000 | Earl Loreburn (Robert Threshie Reid) | Earl of Halsbury |
| Lord Privy Seal..... | 2,000 | Earl Carrington (Charles R. Wynn-Carrington) | { Arthur James Balfour Marquess of Salisbury |
| Lord President of the Council. | 2,000 | Viscount Morley (John Morley) | { The late Duke of Devonshire Marquess of Londonderry |
| PRINCIPAL SECRETARIES OF STATE:— | | | |
| Home Department | 5,000 | Reginald McKenna | Aretas Akers-Douglas (Viscount Chilston) |
| Foreign „ | 5,000 | Sir Edward Grey, Bart. | Marquess of Lansdowne |
| Colonial „ | 5,000 | Lewis Vernon Harcourt .. | { Joseph Chamberlain Hon. Alfred Lyttelton W. St. J. Brodrick (Viscount Midleton) |
| War „ | 5,000 | Viscount Haldane. (Richard Burdon Haldane) | The late H. O. Arnold-Forster |
| Indian „ | 5,000 | Marquess of Crewe (Robert O.A. Crewe-Milnes) | { Lord George Hamilton Viscount Midleton Earl of Selborne Earl Cawdor |
| First Lord of the Admiralty | 4,500 | Winston Leonard Spencer Churchill | { Lord Balfour of Burleigh Andrew Graham Murray (Lord Dunedin) |
| Secretary for Scotland.... | 2,000 | Lord Pentland..... (John Sinclair) | Marquess of Linlithgow |
| Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. | 4,425 | Augustine Birrell | { George Wyndham Walter Hume Long J. Austen Chamberlain Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby) |
| Postmaster-General | 2,500 | Herbert Louis Samuel .. | { Gerald W. Balfour Marquess of Salisbury Walter H. Long Gerald W. Balfour |
| President of the Board of Trade. | 5,000 | Sydney Buxton | { Marquess of Londonderry Sir William H. Walrond (Lord Walcran) |
| President of the Local Government Board. | 5,000 | John Burns | { Lord Windsor (Earl of Plymouth) |
| President of the Board of Education. | 2,000 | Joseph Albert Pease.... | { The late Robert W. Hanbury Earl of Onslow Hon. Ailwyn Fellowes |
| Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. | 2,000 | Charles Edward Henry Hobhouse | |
| First Commissioner of Works. | 2,000 | Earl Beauchamp | |
| President of the Board of Agriculture. | 2,000 | (William Lygon) | |
| | | Walter Runciman | |

Changes under the Liberal Administrations of 1905-11.

Prime Minister: Sir H. Campbell Bannerman (1905). H. H. Asquith (1908).

Chancellor of the Exchequer: H. H. Asquith (1905). D. Lloyd George (1908).

Lord Privy Seal: Marquis of Ripon (1905). Marquess of Crewe (1908).

Lord President of the Council: Marquess of Crewe (1905). Lord Tweedmouth (1908). Viscount Wolverhampton (1908). Earl Beauchamp (1910). Viscount Morley (1910).

Home Secretary: Viscount Gladstone (1905). W. S. Churchill (1910). R. McKenna (1911).

Colonial Secretary: Earl of Elgin (1905). Marquess of Crewe (1908). L. V. Harcourt (1910).

Indian Secretary: Viscount Morley (1905). Marquess of Crewe (1910).

First Lord of the Admiralty: Lord Tweedmouth

(1905). R. McKenna, (1908). W. S. Churchill, (1911). *Chief Secretary (Ireland):* J. Bryce (1905). A. Birrell (1907).

Postmaster General: S. C. Buxton (1905). H. L. Samuel (1910).

President of the Board of Trade: D. Lloyd George (1905). W. Churchill (1908). S. Buxton (1910).

President Board of Education: A. Birrell (1905). R. McKenna (1907). W. Runciman (1908). J. A. Pease, (1911).

President Board of Agriculture: Earl Carrington (1905). W. Runciman (1911).

Chancellor of the Duchy: Vis. Wolverhampton (1905). Lord Fitzmaurice (1908). J. A. Pease (1910). C. E. H. Hobhouse, (1911.)

First Commissioner of Works: L. V. Harcourt (1905). Earl Beauchamp (1910).

II.—OTHER MEMBERS OF THE GOVERNMENT

| Office. | Salary. | Holder. |
|--|---------|---|
| | £ | |
| Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury .. | 2,000 | Master of Elibank (Hon. A. W. C. O. Murray) |
| Financial Secretary to the Treasury | 2,000 | Thomas McKinnon Wood |
| Junior Lords of the Treasury | 1,000 | John William Gulland |
| | 1,000 | W. Wedgwood Benn |
| | 1,000 | William Jones |
| | Unpaid | Percy Holden Illingworth |
| | Unpaid | Capt. the Hon. Frederick Edward Guest |
| UNDER SECRETARIES:— | | |
| Home Department | 1,500 | Charles Frederick Gurney Masterman |
| Foreign " | 1,500 | Francis Dyke Acland |
| Colonial " | 1,500 | Alfred Emmott (peer) |
| War " | 1,500 | Col. John Edward Bernard Seely |
| Indian " | 1,500 | Hon. Edwin Samuel Montagu |
| Financial Secretary to the War Office .. | 1,500 | Harold John Tennant |
| Civil Lord of the Admiralty | 1,000 | George Lambert |
| PARLIAMENTARY SECRETARIES TO THE | | |
| Admiralty | 2,000 | Thomas James Macnamara |
| Board of Trade | 1,200 | John McKinnon Robertson |
| Local Government Board | 1,200 | John Herbert Lewis |
| Board of Education | 1,200 | Charles Philips Trevelyan |
| Board of Agriculture | 1,200 | Lord Lucas |
| Assistant Postmaster-General | 1,200 | Captain Cecil William Norton |
| Paymaster-General | Unpaid | Lord Ashby St. Ledgers (Ivor Guest) |
| Attorney-General | *7,000 | Sir Rufus Daniel Isaacs, K.C. |
| Solicitor-General | *6,000 | Sir John Allsebrook Simon, K.C. |
| SCOTLAND:— | | |
| Secretary for Scotland | 2,000 | Lord Pentland (John Sinclair) |
| Lord Advocate | 5,000 | Alexander Ure, K.C. |
| Solicitor-General | 2,000 | William Hunter, K.C. |
| IRELAND:— | | |
| Lord-Lieutenant | 20,000 | Earl of Aberdeen |
| Lord Chancellor | 6,000 | Redmond Barry, K.C. |
| Attorney-General | 5,000 | C. A. O'Connor |
| Solicitor-General | 2,000 | Sergt. I. O'Brien |
| Vice-President of the Board of Agriculture | 1,350 | Thomas William Russell |
| Lord Chamberlain | £2,000 | Earl Spencer |
| Lord Steward | 2,000 | Earl of Chesterfield |
| Master of the Horse | 2,500 | Earl of Granard |
| Treasurer of the Household | 700 | W. Dudley Ward |
| Comptroller of the Household | 700 | Earl of Liverpool |
| Vice-Chamberlain | 700 | Hon. Geoffrey W. A. Howard |

Changes in these Offices since the Advent of the Liberal Administration in 1905.

Financial Secretary to the Treasury: R. McKenna (Dec., 1905). W. Runciman (1907). C. E. H. Hobhouse ('08). T. McKinnon Wood ('11).
Parliamentary (Patronage) Secretary to the Treasury: G. Whiteley (Lord Marchamley) (1905). J. A. Pease (1908). Master of Elibank (1910).
Junior Lords of Treasury: J. A. Pease, J. H. Lewis, Capt. Norton, J. H. Whitley, F. Freeman Thomas (Lord Willington) (1905). Sir J. R. F. Fuller (1906). J. W. Gulland (1908). O. Partridge (1908). W. W. Benn (1910). E. J. Soares (1910). P. H. Illingworth (1910). W. Jones (1911). F. E. Guest (1911).
Under Secretaries: Home Department: H. L. Samuel (1905); C. F. Masterman (June, 1909). Foreign Department: Lord Fitzmaurice of Leigh ('05); T. McKinnon Wood (Oct., '08). F. D. Acland ('11). Colonial Department: W. S. Churchill ('05); Col. J. E. B. Seely (1908); Lord Lucas (1911); A. Emmott (peer) (1911). War Department: Earl of Portsmouth (1905); Lord Lucas (1908); Col. J. E. B. Seely (1911). Indian Department: J. E. Ellis (Dec., 1905); C. E. Hobhouse (Jan., 1907); T. R. Buchanan; Master of Elibank (1909); Hon. E. S. Montagu (Feb., 1910).
Secretary to the Board of Trade: H. E. Kcarley (Lord Devonport) (1905); H. J. Tennant (1909); J. M. Robertson (1911).
Secretary to Local Government Board: W. Runciman (Dec., 1905); T. J. Macnamara (Jan., '07); C. F. G. Masterman; J. H. Lewis (June, '09).
Financial Secretary to War Office: T. R. Buchanan (1905); F. D. Acland; C. E. Mallet (1910); F. D. Acland (1911); H. J. Tennant ('11).
Assistant Postmaster-General: Sir H. Norman (1910); Capt. Cecil Norton (1910).
Paymaster-General: Richard Knight Causton (Lord Southwark) (1905); Lord Ashby St. Ledgers (Feb., 1910).
Secretary to the Board of Education: T. Lough ('05); T. McKinnon Wood; C. P. Trevelyan ('08).
Parliamentary Secretary to Board of Agriculture: Sir E. Strachey (1909); Lord Lucas (1911).
Attorney-General: Sir Lawson Walton (1905); Sir W. Robson; Sir R. Isaacs (Oct., 1910).
Solicitor-General: Sir W. S. Robson (1905); Sir S. T. Evans; Sir R. Isaacs and J. A. Simon (1910).
Lord Advocate: Thomas Shaw (Lord Shaw of Dunfermline) (1905); Alex. Ure (1909).
Lord Chancellor (Ireland): Sir S. Walker ('05); Redmond Barry ('11).
Solicitor-General (Scotland): Alex. Ure (1905); Arthur Dewar (1909); W. Hunter (1910).
Attorney-General (Ireland): R. R. Cherry (1905); Chas. Andrew O'Connor, K.C. (1911).
Solicitor-General (Ireland): Redmond Barry (1905); Sergt. O'Brien (1911).

* Fees additional.

THE PARLIAMENT ACT.

Destruction of the Lords' Veto.

The relations of the House of Lords and the House of Commons which had previously been founded mainly on constitutional usage were modified during 1911 by the passing of the Parliament Act through its final stage in the House of Lords on August 10th. For the first time in history, the position of the House of Commons in respect of finance was established by statutory enactment.

On Finance.—The Parliament Act provides that if a Money Bill sent by the Commons to the Lords is not passed without amendment within a month it shall be presented to the King and, on the Royal assent being given, become law, notwithstanding that the Lords have not consented to it.

There is to be endorsed on every Money Bill when sent to the Lords or to the King for assent the signed certificate of the Speaker of the House of Commons that it is a Money Bill. But it is provided that before giving his certificate the Speaker shall, if practicable, consult two members to be appointed from the Chairmen's Panel at the beginning of each Session by the Committee of Selection.

A Money Bill means a Public Bill which in the opinion of the Speaker of the House of Commons contains only provisions dealing with all or any of the following subjects, namely, the imposition, repeal, remission, alteration, or regulation of taxation; the imposition for the payment of debt or other financial purposes of charges on the Consolidated Fund, or on money provided by Parliament, or the variation or repeal of any such charges; supply; the appropriation, receipt, custody, issue or audit of accounts of public money; the raising or guarantee of any loan or the repayment thereof; or subordinate matters incidental to those subjects or any of them. In this subsection the expressions "taxation," "public money," and "loan" respectively do not include any taxation, money, or loan raised by local authorities or bodies for local purposes.

On General Legislation.—The Parliament Act provides that when a Bill is passed by the House of Commons in three successive sessions (whether of the same Parliament or not) and is

rejected by the Lords it is, unless the House of Commons direct to the contrary, to be presented to the King for assent and become an Act provided that two years have elapsed between the date of the second reading in the first of those sessions in the House of Commons and the date on which it passes the Commons in the third of those sessions.

A Bill shall be deemed to be rejected by the House of Lords if it is not passed by the House of Lords either without amendment or with such amendments only as may be agreed to by both Houses.

A Bill shall be deemed to be the same Bill as a former Bill sent up to the House of Lords in the preceding session if, when it is sent up to the House of Lords, it is identical or contains only alterations certified by the Speaker of the House of Commons to be necessary owing to the time which has elapsed since the date of the former Bill, or to represent any amendments by the House of Lords agreed to by the House of Commons.

The Speaker must certify that the above provisions have been duly complied with. Amendments made by the House of Lords and agreed to by the House of Commons, and amendments suggested by the Commons and agreed to by the Lords, are to be inserted in the Bill as presented for Royal assent.

The Speaker's certificate may not be questioned in any Court of Law.

The duration of Parliaments is reduced from seven years to five.

The preamble of the Act runs:—

Whereas it is expedient that provision should be made for regulating the relations between the two Houses of Parliament:

And whereas it is intended to substitute for the House of Lords as it at present exists a Second Chamber constituted on a popular instead of hereditary basis, but such substitution cannot be immediately brought into operation:

And whereas provision will require hereafter to be made by Parliament in a measure affecting such substitution for limiting and defining the powers of the new Second Chamber, but it is expedient to make such provision as in this Act appears for restricting the existing powers of the House of Lords:

County Courts Bill, which has already passed the Lords, attempts to make the administration of justice cheaper and more accessible by giving to county courts full jurisdiction, subject to the under-mentioned exceptions, to deal with any action which can be tried in the High Court, notwithstanding that the amount in dispute exceeds the present £100 limit. The exceptions are actions of ejectment, title, libel or slander, breach of promise, divorce, and any action, not at present within the county court jurisdiction, in which the defendant desires that the trial should take place in the High Court.

Mr. W. Crooks' Bill for the settlement of Trade Disputes proposed in effect to adopt the machinery of the Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907 (see page 205) to English conditions. In case of a dispute the Board of Trade would, on the application of either of the parties, appoint a Board of Conciliation and Investigation, none of whose members would have any direct pecuniary interest in the issue. The powers of this board would be confined to recommending what, in the board's opinion after hearing evidence, ought or ought not to be done by the parties concerned. Public opinion would be relied upon to do the rest.

HOUSE OF LORDS REFORM.

Mr. Asquith on a Second Chamber.

On the question whether Liberals intend to propose the reform of the Second Chamber, as suggested in the preamble to the Parliament Act, Mr. Asquith has been explicit. He said in the House of Commons, May 3rd, 1911: "It is desirable that we should have a properly constituted Second Chamber, clothed with definite and limited functions, not in any sense competing with, as the origin of the popular will, the primarily elected representatives of the people. We should have a body not predominantly partisan in composition nor excessive in numbers, which would be capable of exercising functions of revision, consultation, and delay. I have never for many years past deviated from that position.

We are often charged with having in this preamble offered what I may call a pinch of incense to the principle of a Second Chamber without any sincerity of heart or purpose, and, if not with intention, at least leaving open to ourselves the possibility of for ever doing nothing in the matter. I have said, and I think in the most

explicit terms, more than once that his Majesty's present Government do regard it as an obligation, if time permits, to propose within the lifetime of the present Parliament a scheme with that object. I have said that, and I say it again.

In the course of the third reading debate in the House of Commons, on May 15th, 1911, Mr. Asquith again referred to the subject, saying:—

"It is the intention of the Government to undertake that task in the lifetime of the present Parliament. I have ventured to lay down—I think, with the general approval of my hon. friends on this side of the House—and, I believe, of a very large number of gentlemen on the other side of the House—certain conditions, very simple conditions, to which, as it seems to me, any satisfactory Second Chamber must conform. To construct a Second Chamber in conformity with these conditions will be a difficult and a laborious, but I see no reason whatsoever why it should prove to be an impossible, task."

Lord Lansdowne's Proposals.

Lord Lansdowne's scheme for the reform of the House of Lords was embodied in a Bill which was read a second time in the House of Lords on May 22nd and then dropped. The possession of a peerage of the United Kingdom was no longer to carry with it a seat in the House of Lords, except in the case of the Princes of the Blood Royal, unless its holder had other claims to be a Lord of Parliament. The hereditary principle was to be partially retained by the election of 100 hereditary peers by the body of their fellows. To be qualified as a candidate for such election, however, a peer must have rendered public service by holding important office in H.M. Government, in Local Government, in the diplomatic and imperial service, in the Army, the Navy, or the Civil Service. Membership of the House of Commons or of the Privy Council was also a qualification.

The composition of Lord Lansdowne's reformed House was to be as follows:—

100 qualified Hereditary Peers elected by their fellow peers.

120 Lords of Parliament elected for Electoral Districts. These were to be elected by electoral colleges composed of the members of the House of Commons for constitu-

ences within electoral districts, to be formed by Commissioners appointed by the Privy Council. The United Kingdom was to be parcelled out into electoral districts. Each electoral district to return not less than three nor more than twelve Lords of Parliament. The mode of election was to be by proportional representation under the system of the single transferable vote.

100 Lords of Parliament appointed by the Crown. These were to be appointed on the advice of the Ministry of the day, in proportion to the strength of parties in the House of Commons.

3 Princes of the Blood.

7 Spiritual Lords of Parliament. The seven were to be the two Archbishops, and five Bishops elected by the Archbishops and Bishops of England and Wales.

About 16 Legal Lords of Parliament, making a total of 346 members.

There were other clauses providing for the tenure of office, limited to 12 years, except in the cases of the Royal Princes, the Law Lords, and the Archbishops; for the limitation of the Royal Prerogative to the creation of five new hereditary peerages in any one year, except in the cases of Cabinet Ministers; the removal of the disqualification of peers to sit in the House of Commons, and the necessary amendments in the Acts of Union.

Daylight Saving.—Mr. Robert Pearce's Daylight Bill suggested that from the third Sunday in April until the third Sunday in September time should be reckoned as one hour earlier than Greenwich mean time. The new time, to be known as "Summer Season Time," should be understood to be referred to, unless it is otherwise expressly stated, in any legal case into which the question of time enters. But for the purposes of astronomy and navigation, time should be unaffected by the new regulations.

Water Supply.—A step towards giving effect to the Report of the Select Committee on Water Supplies, the conclusions of which were summarised in the "Daily News" Year Book of 1911, has been taken by the Local Government Board. A return is being prepared, stating the water supply of every district of England and Wales, with information about available sources other than those in use. This, it is understood, is preliminary to a Government Bill dealing with water supply.

THE REFERENDUM.

Lord Balfour of Burleigh's Proposal.

The favourite proposal of many Conservatives for the ultimate settlement of disagreements between the two Houses is that of the referendum. Lord Balfour of Burleigh introduced a Bill into the House of Lords during the session of 1911 for establishing the referendum, but it was indefinitely postponed. Its operative clauses provided:—

(1) When any Bill for a public general Act of Parliament—a term which includes the Budget for the year—sent by the Commons is rejected by the Lords, or so amended that the Commons will not agree, the Bill is to be referred to the electors on the demand of either House.

(2) When any such Bill—again including the Budget—is passed by both Houses of Parliament and a petition signed by not less than 200 of the House of Commons praying that the Bill be submitted to a poll of the electors is presented to the Crown, it shall be submitted accordingly.

(3) The poll is to be taken on the same day on the basis of "one man one vote" and "one vote one value."

The machinery proposed for taking a poll was substantially that of a general election in the recording and counting of votes. The Clerk of the Crown in Chancery was then to ascertain the aggregate of votes cast for or against a Bill. A majority of 2 per cent over the total negative vote was to be sufficient for the Royal assent. The form of ballot paper proposed was this:—

"If you wish the Bill, the short title

of which is (".....") to become law, place a cross under the word 'Yes.' If not, place a cross under the word 'No.'"

In April, 1911, the referendum was put to a severe test in the Australian Commonwealth. The Government had recourse to it on two specific points of policy. The first was:—

(1) To alter the provisions of the constitution by empowering the Parliament to make laws with respect to industries and businesses declared to be the subject of a monopoly.

(2) To alter Section 61 of the constitution by extending the powers of the Commonwealth with respect to trade and commerce, corporations, trusts, and monopolies.

These proposals touched business interests in many directions, with the result that the trading community were up in arms. The end was that both proposals were rejected by a majority of States, and of electors. As to States, Western Australia was alone on each point in favour of the Government, while New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Tasmania were against.

On the first point electors were divided thus:—

| | |
|---------------|---------|
| For | 482,892 |
| Against | 742,273 |

On the second point the voting was:—

| | |
|---------------|---------|
| For | 488,110 |
| Against | 735,949 |

The Government, therefore, received a severe rebuff, and are remaining in office without being able to carry out an important part of their policy.

THE SHOPS BILL.

The Act of 1904, to secure a weekly early-closing day for shops, has practically been a failure. Only about 30,000 shops out of a total of at least 500,000 have in the seven years of its operation been brought in the smallest degree within its provisions. Without compulsory early closing, practically the whole retail trade in a district may be left to the mercy of a small minority of obstinate men, who, by keeping their own shops open, may force their competitors to do the same. Indeed, the demand for a compulsory weekly early-closing day has come as much from the shopkeepers as from the assistants.

The Shops Bill, 1911—the latest of a series of attempts to get legislation on this subject through Parliament—was greeted with approval from all quarters of the House on its 2nd Reading, but in the long committee stage, many amendments have been made.

Among its most important provisions are the following:—

An assistant may not be employed in the ordinary way for more than 60 hours in a week, and must have one clear half-holiday. Over-

time is allowed under restrictions, but in no case may it exceed 90 hours in the course of the year. Special arrangements may be made in the case of persons engaged in the sale of refreshments.

Every shop, with the exception of licensed houses, restaurants, tobacconists, newsagents, and purveyors of perishable goods must be closed for a weekly half-holiday.

Local authorities, if satisfied that a majority of shopkeepers of any specified class desire it, may make closing orders, limiting the hours during which shops of this class may be open for every day of the week. The Home Office will have power to bring pressure to bear on local authorities to carry out the duties laid upon them, and in case of necessity may call upon the county council, or even the factory inspectors, to see that the law is obeyed, and may charge the cost to the recalcitrant authority.

The general rule is laid down that shops must be closed on Sunday, but exceptions are allowed in the case of:—

- (i.) Jewish shops closed on Saturday.
- (ii.) All shops in certain areas with large Jewish populations, e.g., the County of London, up to 2 p.m.
- (iii.) Various other businesses, e.g., licensed houses and restaurants.

SIX YEARS OF LIBERAL LEGISLATION.*

Administrative, Constitutional, & Legal Reform.

The provisions of the **Finance Bill** of 1909, which embodied Mr. Lloyd George's famous Budget, stand in the forefront of Liberal legislation, for they signified the advent of a new era of national finance, and both provided the money for, and initiated far-reaching social reforms.

Three great Acts of a constitutional character have been passed during the Liberal régime. The **Parliament Act** of 1911 (see page 107) brought to a head and to a triumphant ending the long struggle of the Commons to control finance, and abolished the absolute veto of the Lords. The **Indian Councils Act**, 1909, provided for the representation of different classes of the community, partly by nomination and partly by direct election, and for greater freedom of discussion. The **South African Act**, 1909, constituted the Union of South Africa, comprising the four provinces of the Cape, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange Free State. Though ultimately subject to the Parliament of Great Britain, the Union Parliament is a sovereign body, and has power to alter the constitution.

The **Telephone Transfer Act**, 1911 (see page 96), nationalised a great and growing service. By the **Public Trustee Act**, 1906, the office of a Public Trustee was established, who at a reasonable rate of payment is able to give the security of the State to many who would otherwise be at the mercy of a fraudulent or negligent executor or trustee. The **Justices of the Peace Act**, 1906, abolished the property qualification hitherto necessary to enable a man to become a Justice of the Peace for a county. The **Accession Declaration Act** of 1910 altered the King's Accession Declaration to a form which should not offend the susceptibilities of His Majesty's Catholic subjects.

Mr. Haldane's scheme of Army Reform in 1907, embodied in the **Territorial and Reserve Forces Act**, 1907, completely reorganised army administration by bringing into existence the

Territorial Army to replace the Imperial Yeomanry and Volunteers.

The establishment of a **Court of Criminal Appeal** in 1907 was followed by two important criminal statutes. The **Probation of Offenders Act**, 1907, is chiefly directed towards preventing youthful offenders from falling into the criminal classes, and provides for the appointment of Probation Officers to assist in its administration.

The **Prevention of Crime Act**, 1908, dealt (1) with the reformation of youthful offenders, by means of Borstal institutions, (2) with the preventive detention of habitual criminals.

A criminal statute of some importance in business and commercial life was the **Prevention of Corruption Act**, 1906, which prohibited the giving of any gift or consideration to an agent in order to influence his relations with his principal.

The **Perjury Act**, 1911 (see below), is a much-needed step towards the complete codification of the law.

In the department of Education the **Irish University Act**, 1908, abolished the old Royal University of Ireland, and established two new Universities in its place, viz., the National University in Dublin and the Queen's University of Belfast. Turning to Primary Education, we find that some important measures were passed which safeguard the health and physique of school children. By the **Education (Provision of Meals) Act**, 1906, local education authorities are empowered to assist voluntary efforts for feeding under-fed school children, and the **Education (Administrative Provisions) Act**, 1907, imposed upon them the duty to provide for the medical inspection of children in elementary schools. Somewhat new ground in the matter of educational reform was struck by the **Scotch Education Act** of 1908, which empowers School Boards to make attendance at continuation classes compulsory between the ages of 14 and 17.

Industrial and Commercial.

The **Trade Disputes Act**, 1906, secured immunity for the funds of trade unions, and legalised "peaceful picketing." The **Workmen's Compensation Act**, 1906, brings practically every description of manual labour within the scope of compensation for injuries from accidents arising out of and in the course of a workman's employment. The **Coal Mines (Eight Hours) Act**, 1908, whose name explains itself, gives more leisure to a class of workers whose occupation is peculiarly arduous. Three problems in social economics

were grappled with for the first time by the **Old Age Pensions Acts**, 1908 and 1911, the **Labour Exchanges Act**, 1909, and the **Trade Boards Act**, 1909, the beneficial working of which are dealt with severally elsewhere.

Of general measures dealing with the health and safety of the workers, the most important were: (1) The **White Phosphorus Matches Prohibition Act**, 1908, which does away with the risk of contracting necrosis by prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. (2) The **Tuberculosis Prevention Act (Ireland)**, 1908, which makes tuberculosis subject to notification, and empowers County

* A list of the Acts of this Session, given in alphabetical order, follows this article.

Councils to provide hospitals for the treatment of consumptives. The **Factory and Workshop (Cotton Cloth Factories) Act, 1911** (see below) brings about some much-needed reforms in these establishments.

The **Patents and Designs Act, 1907**, consolidated and amended the law relating to patents. Its most important provision is one compelling the foreign holders of British patents to work them in this country, and makes it possible to have these patents revoked if they are not worked within a reasonable time. Among the more important pieces of company legislation were: (1) The **Limited Partnerships Act, 1907**, an Act by which it is made possible to form

limited liability partnerships. (2) The **Assurance Companies Act, 1909**, which, among other provisions, required every assurance company to make a deposit of £20,000 and rendered their accounts liable to public supervision.

The **Merchant Shipping Act, 1906**, is the Magna Charta of British seamen. It secures a good scale of food for the seamen, and provides that the shipowner must bear the expenses of illness where it is not clearly due to the seaman's own fault.

The **Port of London Act, 1908**, produced order out of chaos in the management of the enormously important interests of the Port of London by establishing a new Port Authority.

Land and Housing.

The **Small Holdings and Allotments Act, 1907**, enables County Councils to acquire, under compulsion if necessary, land for small holdings; in cases where a Council is unwilling to act the Board of Agriculture has power to carry the matter through.

The **Evicted Tenants (Ireland) Act, 1907**, provided means for the restoration of agricultural tenants in Ireland who had been evicted from their holdings. The **Agricultural Holdings (Scotland) Act, 1908**, gave to tenants property in fixtures or buildings erected by them and compensation for improvements. Similar rights were given to town tenants by the **Town Tenants (Ireland) Act, 1906**.

The **Housing** problem in town and country has also been made the subject of a number of Acts. The **Labourers**

(Ireland) Act, 1906, enabled Rural Councils to acquire by agreement or compulsorily land in Ireland for the erection of labourers' cottages. The **Housing of the Working Classes (Ireland) Act, 1908**, created the "Irish Housing Fund," which may be drawn upon by Irish town authorities for the purpose of erecting and improving workmen's dwellings in towns. The **Labourers (Ireland) Act, 1911** (see below), continues this good work. The **Open Spaces Act, 1906**, gave to local authorities greater powers of acquiring and controlling open spaces, and enabled them to adopt schemes for the building of houses, so as to secure due provision for light and air. The first year's working of the **Development Act, 1909**, is noticed elsewhere (see section Land).

Women and Children.

The status of woman has been improved by four Acts of the year 1907: (1) The **Deceased Wife's Sister's Marriage Act** settled a long agitated question by legalising marriage with the deceased wife's sister. (2) The **Employment of Women Act, 1907**, abolished from the Factory Acts the last provision permitting the employment of women in industrial occupations during the night. (3) The **Qualification of Women (County and Borough Councils) Act** removed the restriction against a woman being able to act as mayor, councillor, alderman, or chairman of a council. (4) The **Matrimonial Causes Act** amended the Acts of 1857 and 1866, and increased the powers of the Court to grant mainten-

ance and alimony in cases of judicial separation and divorce.

The **Children Act, 1906**—"the Children's Charter"—(1) strikes at the abuses of baby-farming, and makes compulsory the registration of all persons who undertake for reward the custody of children; (2) gives larger powers to the courts in cases of cruelty; (3) makes it an offence to sell tobacco to children or young persons; (4) deals with the inspection and registration of industrial schools; (5) prevents child offenders from coming into contact with older criminals by establishing separate courts of summary jurisdiction for their trials; (6) makes it an offence to permit children to enter the bars of licensed premises.

Private Bills of 1911.

The total number of private bills deposited for the Parliamentary Session, 1911, relating to railways, canals, tramways, and the supply of electricity, gas, and water amounted to 104 as compared with 89 in 1910. The money proposed to be raised was £30,724,050, as against £12,667,456, an increase of over 18 millions. Twenty-nine railway Bills, of which 16 proposed

to authorise the construction of new railways or additional railway works, had proposed to raise capital of over 17 millions. The largest of these, the Greater London Railway Bill, with a proposed capital of 6 millions, was rejected by a Committee of the House of Lords presided over by Lord Newton, after having passed the Commons.

LEGISLATIVE OUTPUT OF THE SESSION.

The Acts of 1911 up to the Summer Recess.

Aerial Navigation gives power to the Government to make orders, when the public safety requires it, prohibiting the navigation of aircraft over prescribed areas.

Appropriation grants £95,297,884 for supply, and allocates the amounts voted to each department.

Army (Annual) in addition to the usual clauses authorises county Territorial Associations to perform the duty, previously performed solely by the police, of compiling lists of vehicles and animals in their district suitable for military purposes.

Consolidated Fund (No. 1) grants £476,815 for supplementary supply for the years ending March 31st, 1910, and 1911, and authorises the issue of £35,510,500 from the Consolidated Fund for 1912.

Consolidated Fund (No. 2) grants £17,607,521 for supply and authorises the issue of Treasury bills.

Expiring Laws Continuance continues in force various temporary laws.

Factory and Workshop (Cotton Cloth Factories) gives power to the Secretary of State to make regulations to carry out the recommendations of the Departmental Committee on humidity and ventilation in cotton cloth factories.

Geneva Convention prohibits the further use of the Red Cross for commercial purposes, in order to carry out completely the International Convention of 1906.

Government of India (Amendment) amends the Government of India Act, 1858, in respect to retiring allowances.

Indian High Courts, gives power to the Indian Government to remove the congestion of legal business in the courts by increasing the number of High Court Judges from 15 to 20, by establishing a new High Court if necessary in any part of India, and by appointing temporary judges.

Intestate Husband's Estate (Scotland), bestows on a widow the same right as in England to a first charge of £500 on her deceased husband's property if he has died intestate.

Isle of Man (Customs), amends the law with respect to Customs in the Isle of Man.

Labourers (Ireland) applies the dormant portion of the Irish Suitors' Fund to the purposes of the Labourers' Cottages' Fund, gives authority to the Irish Land Commission to extend the limit of advances which may be made for the provision of cottages and allotments from 4½ millions to 5½ millions, and gives further powers for the demolition of unhealthy cottages.

Merchant Shipping (Seamen's Allotment) regulates the payment of seamen's allotment notes.

Municipal Elections (Corrupt and Illegal Practices) applies to municipal elections the law as to false statements which is now applicable to Parliamentary elections.

Official Secrets re-enacts the Official Secrets Act, 1889, which imposes heavy penalties on spying and the disclosure of confidential information concerning any military or naval works.

Old Age Pensions (1911) removes some hardships and minor difficulties which experience showed to exist in the Act of 1908. By international law the wife of an alien ceases to be a British subject even though she continues to reside in Great Britain. This amending Act relaxes the condition as to nationality in the case of a woman who has rendered herself

ineligible for a pension merely by having married a foreigner, if her husband is dead, or the marriage has been dissolved, or she has been legally separated from or deserted by him for two years. A condition is laid down that a pensioner must have spent 12 years out of the 20 years previous to the receipt of his pension in the United Kingdom, but relaxation is allowed in the cases of Crown servants and in some other circumstances. Further, in considering disqualifications, relief given to a claimant's wife or other relative is not to be construed as relief given to himself, and two years replaces 10 years as the period of disqualification for a crime whose punishment does not exceed six weeks' imprisonment.

Parliament (see page 107).

Parsonages, removes some difficulties in connection with the administration by Queen Anne's Bounty of the proceeds of the sale of parsonage houses.

Pensions (Governors of Dominions, &c.) enables a pension to be granted to a governor or administrator who has completed 10 years' service, and has either attained the age of 60 years or has had to relinquish his office owing to illness, or because of its abolition.

Perjury, consolidates and simplifies the law relating to perjury, the taking of false oaths and similar offences, which previously had to be sought partly from the Common Law and partly from isolated clauses in some 132 Acts of Parliament.

Poultry (Prevention of Cruelty), enables orders to be made to protect poultry for sale from unnecessary suffering.

Protection of Animals, strengthens the law which prevents cruelty to animals, and lays down stringent regulations with regard to the business of a "knacker."

Public Health (Ireland) empowers Irish local authorities to make regulations for the inspection of slaughter-houses and the seizure of unsound meat.

Public Health (Scotland) 1897 Act (Amendment), extends the powers of local authorities under the Public Health (Scotland) Act to any body of trustees or commissioners authorised to supply water.

Public Libraries (Art Galleries in County Boroughs) Ireland, gives powers for the use of the rates for this purpose.

Public Works Loans, authorises the use of 5½ millions of public money for the purpose of loans for public works.

Revenue, contains amendments in customs, excise, and other duties, and the methods of levying them.

Telephone Transfer (see page 93).

The following Bills have passed the Commons and have yet to be considered by the Lords: Copyright, Education Administrative Provisions (No. 2), Local Authorities, Ireland (Qualification of Women), Merchandise Marks, Merchant Shipping (Stevedores and Trimmers), Pacific Cable, Public Roads (Ireland), Salford Hundred Court of Record, Telegraph (Construction).

The following have been sent by the Lords to the Commons: Agricultural Credit and Insurance Societies, Appellate Jurisdiction Bishoprics, Conveyancing, County Courts, Employment of Children, Ferries, Lunacy, Movable Dwellings, Places of Worship, Rights of Way, Small Holdings and Allotments, Trustee.

St. Ivel Cheese is the only cheese known to contain the original organic phosphates of the milk which are so necessary to health.

St. IVEL
CHEESE

THE DECLARATION OF LONDON. Neutral Shipping in time of War.

BY H. SACHER.

The controversy as to the propriety of ratifying the Declaration of London raged through many months, was discussed in the press, by Chambers of Commerce, on the platform, at the Imperial Conference, in the House of Lords, and in the House of Commons, and was finally closed by the discussion of the Naval Prize Bill, which sets up an International Prize Court of Appeal and so provides the machinery for enforcing the provisions of The Declaration of London.

Before the Hague Conference of 1907 the only machinery for administering the law governing naval warfare was the prize Courts of the belligerent powers. If, for instance, Russia and Japan were at war and a Russian warship seized or sunk an English merchant ship, the only courts to determine the rights and wrongs of this action were the Russian prize courts. There was no appeal to a neutral court, and no remedy except diplomatic pressure or the threat of war for a neutral power which considered the conduct of a belligerent's navy or the decisions of a belligerent's prize courts injurious to its interests or inequitable. The law administered by these national prize courts was that form of maritime law which each state thought either to represent international law or to suit its own interests.

As, with one small exception, there was no acknowledged international code of maritime law, each state was free to call sound international doctrine whatever it pleased; and as the interests of small and large naval powers, island and continental states differed, and as the exigencies of a particular war might make a particular change or decree advantageous to a belligerent, there were profound divergencies between the maritime law of state and state. The exception referred to was the field covered by the Declaration of Paris (1856), an international agreement, formally or informally assented to by practically every power. This Declaration abolished privateering, protected neutral goods, except contraband, under the enemy's flag, and enemy goods, except contraband, under the neutral flag, and declared that a blockade to be binding must be effective. Outside these few rules of universal obligation everything was chaos.

The evils and dangers of the situation were brought home to the Powers by the Russo-Japanese war, and English merchants and shipowners were particularly dissatisfied with numerous decisions of the Russian prize courts.

The Hague Conference in 1907 tackled the difficulty. The problem was a double one: to set up a prize court with a guarantee of impartiality and to establish a code of naval law which would be fixed and known in advance

and universally accepted. The Hague Conference drafted a scheme for an International Prize Court to which an appeal would lie from the prize courts of any belligerent. To draft an international code of naval law the ten chief naval powers met in London from 4th December, 1908, to 26th February, 1909, and drew up the Declaration of London, the text of which is accompanied by an Explanatory Report accepted by the Conference. The composition of the International Prize Court has been criticised with little sincerity or success, but the code embodied in the Declaration has been severely attacked in this country. The Declaration deals with the rights of belligerents against neutrals and of neutrals against belligerents. It does not touch the rights of belligerents against one another—a point of very great importance.

Eight topics were submitted by the British Government to the Naval Conference: (1) Contraband, (2) blockade, (3) continuous voyage, (4) destruction of neutral vessels, (5) unneutral service, (6) the conversion of merchantships into warships on the high seas, (7) the transfer of merchant ships to a neutral flag, (8) the test of the enemy character of cargoes. Upon all but two, the 4th and 8th, agreement was reached. These two were left open. The 8th is of little importance, the fourth has caused much controversy.

England, having ports scattered all over the world, takes the view that a merchant ship ought not to be converted into a warship, or a warship reconverted into a merchant ship, except in a port belonging to the belligerent; most other powers, having few ports on the great trade routes, claim the right to convert and reconvert on the High Seas. Critics of the Declaration say that the Continental claim means the revival of privateering abolished in 1856; but whereas the privateer was a privately-owned ship, fitted out by its owners, commanded by persons appointed by them, and carrying on war for their profit, a converted merchantman is a warship under the direct authority, immediate control and responsibility of the Power whose flag it flies and commanded by a naval officer and entered on the belligerent's navy list. It should be remembered that when we are at war our merchant ships are always liable to capture by the enemy, and must depend for protection upon the British navy. The view taken by our Foreign Office is that as the Naval Conference failed to settle the question of conversion, the International Prize Court will have no right to settle it, so that the omission of this topic from the Declaration leaves us no worse, if no better, off than we were before.

DECLARATION OF LONDON—(con.)

Food Supplies in Time of War.

The Declaration divides commodities into three classes—goods which can never be contraband, goods which are conditional contraband, goods which are absolute contraband. The first class or "free list" includes the raw materials of many important industries, embracing something like half the imports of this country. A free list is an innovation, as hitherto every country has reserved the right to put any commodity on the list of contraband. **Absolute contraband includes all "articles exclusively used for war,"** and the list set out in the Declaration may be added to by notifying the powers. Absolute contraband is liable to capture if it is shown to be destined to territory belonging to or occupied by the enemy or the avowed forces of the enemy. **Conditional contraband includes articles susceptible of use in war as well as for purposes of peace.** The most important of these is foodstuffs.

Conditional contraband is liable to capture if it is shown to be destined for the use of the armed forces or of a Government department of the enemy state; and this destination is presumed to exist if the goods are consigned to enemy authorities, or to a trader established in the enemy country who, as a matter of common knowledge, supplies articles of this kind to the enemy, or to a fortified place or other place serving as a base for the armed forces of the enemy. It is over the inclusion of foodstuffs in conditional contraband and over the conditions which justify the presumption of liability to capture that the fiercest controversy has raged. It has been argued by the critics of the Declaration (a) that by international law foodstuffs are never contraband; (b) that every port in the British Isles will be treated by the enemy as a base for the armed forces of this country in time of war, and therefore all food consigned to this country be liable to capture, and (c) that as a result the Declaration puts this country in imminent danger of starvation in the event of war.

We may examine these contentions in order. (a) In 1793 England treated

all foodstuffs consigned to French ports as contraband. We have since abandoned this view, but in 1885 France declared rice contraband with the approval of Germany, and in 1908 Russia declared food absolute contraband. More recently Turkey in her war with Italy was disposed to treat corn as absolute contraband, and even stop the whole Black Sea trade, whatever the destination of the cargoes. It is clear, therefore, that with or without the Declaration continental nations would, in the event of a war with this country, treat food as contraband. The Declaration limits this right of theirs by saying that food can be treated as contraband only under certain conditions.

(b) The English prize courts would have declared food contraband under the circumstances specified in the Declaration. It is impossible for the term "base" to be interpreted to cover any port connected by rail with a base for armed forces, because that would be inconsistent with the rule that the doctrine of continuous voyage is not to apply to conditional contraband.

(c) At least two-thirds of the British food supply is carried in British ships, and Declaration or no Declaration is liable to capture in the event of our being at war. It is only the remaining third which is affected by the Declaration. If we cannot protect the two-thirds, Declaration or no Declaration, we must starve. If our control of the sea enables us to protect the two-thirds in British ships it enables us to protect the third in neutral ships. With or without the Declaration, the only guarantee of our food supply is the command of the sea. The Declaration only affects the problem very slightly, and, to the extent that it does, favourably, for it abolishes the doctrine of continuous voyage.

In other words, **food, whether in neutral or British bottoms, if consigned to a neutral port, say, Rotterdam, would be safe from capture,** and this country would merely have to escort it across from Rotterdam, instead of from New York, Buenos Ayres, or Odessa.

The Doctrine of Blockade.

The British doctrine of blockade has been that **a blockade runner may be seized at any point until she reaches a neutral port;** in fact, there is no recorded case of a ship being condemned except after capture within the area of blockade operations. The French doctrine was that no ship could be captured until after she had been visited and warned that a blockade was in existence, in other words, a blockade runner could have a first bite. The Italian doctrine was that

no ship could be seized until she had crossed an imaginary line drawn round the blockaded coast. The Declaration lays down the doctrine that a ship can be captured only in the area of blockade operations, and that knowledge of the blockade must be presumed if the blockade was notified before the vessel left its last port. This establishes the English doctrine, as it has been exercised in English practice, as international law—a very real concession by other powers to this country.

DECLARATION OF LONDON—(con.)

The Destruction of Neutral Prizes.

The Declaration says that a neutral prize may not be destroyed unless not to destroy it would involve danger to the safety of the warship, or to the success of the operations in which the warship is engaged. **Compensation must be paid unless the capture was valid and the captor can show that he acted in the face of such exceptional necessity.**

The critics of the Declaration say that to permit the destruction of neutral prizes under any circumstances is a dangerous innovation. The reported cases show that English prize law did permit the destruction of neutral prizes under the circumstances outlined in the Declaration. At the Naval Conference every other power except Spain, Japan, and Holland, claimed the right to destroy neutral prizes without compensation. The Declaration restricts this right and requires compensation; it therefore marks an advance, not a retrogression.

The Government made very little attempt to defend the Declaration against its critics, who were carrying on a campaign in the press, on the platform, and on the hoardings, until February, when Mr. McKinnon Wood made the first of a series of able speeches. The Opposition was weakened rather than strengthened by the fact that it embraced men of entirely opposed views, those who objected to any sea law restricting the action of war against commerce, and those who wanted further protection than they believed the Declaration

afforded. In March there was a prolonged debate in the Lords on Lord Desborough's proposal to appoint a Royal Commission to examine the question. The debate was notable for Lord Morley's statement of the views of the Admiralty and for the inclination of the Opposition to make the question a party issue. In the same month a Parliamentary Committee was formed in support of the Declaration.

Jurists were divided. On the one hand, Dr. Holland and Dr. Baty denounced the Declaration; on the other, Prof. Westlake, Mr. Arthur Cohen, and Lord Lindley supported it. In June over a hundred admirals on the retired list signed a memorial against ratification. Mr. McKenna pointed out that very few of these officers had seen flag service.

The first serious check to the agitation was the meeting of the Imperial Conference. Sir Edward Grey had promised that there would be no ratification without the consent of the Conference. To the surprise of the opponents the Conference was unanimous in approving ratification. On 27th June Mr. Balfour spoke in London against the ratification, and definitely committed his party. The following day the subject came before the Commons on the second reading of the Naval Prize Bill to sanction the establishment of the International Prize Court. After a prolonged debate the second reading was carried on a practically straight party vote.

H. S.

NEW COPYRIGHT MEASURE.

The new Copyright Bill, introduced by Mr. Buxton on March 30th, 1911, has passed through the House of Commons, and is now ready for submission to the Lords. The main object is to carry out the decisions of the Berlin Convention of 1908, and to codify and consolidate the entire law of copyright in his Majesty's dominions.

The Bill is not to apply to the self-governing Colonies unless adopted by them. It contains provisions by which reciprocity of copyright may be established between England and foreign countries.

"Copyright" under the new measure shall subsist in every original dramatic, musical, and artistic work, if

(a) In the case of a published work the work was first published in his Majesty's dominions; and

(b) In the case of an unpublished work, the author was at the date of the making of the work a British subject, or resident within his Majesty's dominions.

Copyright as defined by the Bill means the "sole right to produce or reproduce the work or any substantial part thereof in any material form whatsoever, and in any lan-

guage; to perform or, in the case of a lecture, to deliver, the work or any substantial part thereof in public, or if the work is unpublished, to publish the work."

One of the most important provisions of the Bill is that which deals with the term of copyright, and materially alters the existing law. The new proposal is that the term of copyright should be the life of the author, and a period of 50 years after his death. To safeguard the interests of the public, this rule is subject to certain restrictions which give only a limited species of copyright from 25 years after the author's death. Compulsory licenses to publish may also be granted if it be proved that the owner of the copyright is unduly withholding some work from the public by refusing to republish.

The author of a work is in general the first owner of the copyright, and no registration or enrolment of any kind is now required. All assignments, however, must be made in writing. Copyright is not infringed by a newspaper summary of any work, or by the reading in public of any reasonable extract from a published work.

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WELSH DISESTABLISHMENT.

On March 7th, a deputation representing the Welsh Parliamentary Party waited upon the Prime Minister to urge the importance of passing a Welsh Disestablishment Bill into law in 1912.

In reply, the Prime Minister said that it was the intention of the Government to give to the Welsh Disestablishment Bill such a position next year as will enable it to override the Veto of the Lords during the present Parliament.

The Welsh Disestablishment Bill introduced by Mr. Asquith in 1909 proposed that on Disestablishment all churches, parsonages, &c., closed burial grounds, funds allocated for the repair of churches and other buildings, and all private benefactions since 1662 should be retained by the Welsh Church, and that other property should be utilised for philanthropic or educational purposes. The Welsh Bishops were to lose their seats in the House of Lords, and the Crown was to give up its present right of appointing to various ecclesiastical offices. For many years a resolution advocating the Disendowment

and Disestablishment of the Church in Wales has found a place on the agenda of the Welsh National Liberal Council. This year the resolution ran:—

"This Council, realising that the successful passage of the Parliament Bill makes possible the enactment of progressive legislation long overdue, presses upon the Government the necessity of recognising the consistently overwhelming demand of the Welsh nation for religious equality during the past 40 years, and urges upon them that, in fulfilment of the Prime Minister's promise of March 7th of this year, a Bill for the disestablishment and disendowment of the Church of England in Wales be passed without delay."

At the very meeting at which this resolution was brought forward, there was read a telegram from Mr. Lloyd George, who said:—

"We are on the eve of the final struggle for religious equality in our native land. Next year will see a Government Bill to disestablish the State Church in Wales and to restore our national endowments to national purposes pressed through all its stages in Parliament."

Report of the Welsh Church Commission.

It is safe to say that the long looked for Report of the Welsh Church Commission has given as little satisfaction to the public as to the Commissioners themselves. It was hoped to find a satisfactory answer to the question on which the controversy turned: Is the Church of England really a National Church in Wales? If the spiritual needs of the Welsh people are in the main provided for by other religious bodies, the Church in Wales no longer is in a position to act as trustee for the national funds. But there has been much controversy over the statistics issued. Of the seven members of the Commission who append their signatures, five do so with considerable reservations, and while two of the nine Commissioners do not sign the Chairman's report, they are associated with three of the signatories in presenting a memorandum and a separate report to the King.

The Commission was appointed in June, 1906, the original members being: Lord Justice Vaughan Williams (chairman), Lord Hugh Cecil, Sir John Williams, Sir Francis Edwards, Archdeacon Evans, Mr. John Ernest Greaves (Lord-Lieutenant of Carnarvonshire), Sir S. T. Evans, Principal Fairbairn, and Professor Jones, of Glasgow.

In May, 1907, owing to the resignation of the last named three, Sir David Brynmor Jones, K.C., Mr. J. H. Davies, of the University of Wales, and the Rev. J. Morgan Gibbon were appointed in their places.

The Commission held 134 sittings in public and 41 in private, and examined 135 witnesses, of whom 42 gave evidence

for the Church of England, two were officials, and the remainder Nonconformists.

The report states that in Wales there are 1,546 churches belonging to the *Established Church*, towards the erection or restoration of which the Ecclesiastical Commissioners have granted £21,653, and since 1840, so far as can be ascertained from the diocesan statistics, the total amount of voluntary contributions for this purpose was £3,332,385.

In regard to work done, the Commission found that the *Church of England* had seating accommodation for 458,917 persons in 1,864 buildings, or one place of worship for every 1,080 of the population, and two seats for every nine persons. In these "English" services to the number of 2,442, "Welsh" Sunday services numbering 1,103, and bilingual services to the number of 223 are held each Sunday.

The *Nonconformist* chapels and mission room in which Divine service is held number 4,660, or approximately one place of worship for every 450 people in Wales, and they provide seating accommodation for 1,538,354 persons.

Thus the accommodation provided by the Nonconformist bodies is 74 per cent. of the total population of Wales, but the report points out that this accommodation is greatly in excess of the number of persons who may reasonably be expected to avail themselves of it. Indeed, by adding to the Church and Nonconformist figures 21,880 sittings in Roman Catholic churches, the total number of sittings is found to be some thousands in excess of the total population of Wales—a strange and significant result.

Having decided not to take a census of attendance at places of worship,

WELSH DISESTABLISHMENT—(con.)

the Commission had some difficulty in finding some common denominator by which to measure the relative strength of the denominations. The chairman's report seems to make attendance at Communion the criterion, and gives the following as a summary of the religious condition of Wales.

| Churches. | Communicants. |
|------------------------------|---------------|
| Baptists | 143,835 |
| Calvinistic Methodists | 170,617 |
| Congregationalists | 175,147 |
| Wesleyans | 40,811 |
| Smaller denominations | 19,870 |

Nonconformist total 550,280
Church of England total ... 193,081

Grand total 743,361

In 1905, the Church of England in Wales performed 21,948 baptisms and

15,341 confirmations. While 389 episcopal churches only held one service on Sunday, 1,139 had two, and 216 two or more. No details as to the numbers of week-night services are given.

Full justice is done in the reports and memoranda to the great activity of the Nonconformist churches. Particularly is this to be observed in the **Sunday School movement**, which, say the Commissioners, has for years been inseparably bound up with the religious life and activities of the Welsh people, and in its origin and growth affords the most striking illustration of the deep religious feelings of the Welsh nation. The total number of scholars on the books is given as 611,083, and a remarkable feature is the proportion of these, over one-third, who are above 15 years of age.

The Question of Endowments.

The income of the Church of England in Wales from endowments is given by the following table:—

| | Rents. | Tithes. | Other sources |
|--------------------------------|---------|----------|---------------|
| Endowments prior to 1703 | £19,861 | £157,573 | £8,019 |
| Queen Anne's Bounty: | | | |
| Royal Bounty Fund | 17,705 | 1,490 | 12,431 |
| Parly. Gnts Fund | 1,929 | 424 | 3,970 |
| Eccles. Commrs. . . | 791 | 24,837 | 31,833 |
| Private Gifts since 1703 | 3,173 | 5,627 | 12,699 |
| | £13,459 | £189,951 | £68,952 |

In addition to £68,853 for church building and burial grounds, £48,972 was raised by voluntary contributions towards the emoluments of the clergy in the year ending Easter, 1906.

No detailed enquiry was made by the Commission as regards the liberal provision made by Nonconformists in support of the ministry and church services. A general statement is, however, made that £426,597 was contributed in an unnamed year.

In addition to a short history of the **Forward Movement** in the various churches, reference is made to the tendency of Nonconformists to unite—as evidenced by the Free Church Councils—and the apparent absence of any desire on the part of Church of England authorities to co-operate so far as public worship is concerned. At the same time, attention is drawn to the **increasing co-operation of all religious bodies in matters which affect the social and moral betterment of the people.**

No recommendations are made in the chairman's report, and the dissentient reports and memoranda are chiefly concerned with that part of the enquiry which deals with the provision made and the work done by the various religious bodies. No schedule of questions was issued, or any indication of the kind of evidence required, and that consequently witnesses were unable to give the evidence which the Commission wanted. Moreover, no visit was

paid to or personal inspection made of any part of the Principality to examine the work done or the extent to which the people availed themselves of the opportunities offered them.

In an additional memorandum Lord Hugh Cecil and Archdeacon Evans review more widely the position of the Church in Wales, lay stress on the steady increase of its popularity, and on the other hand throw doubt on some of the Nonconformist statistics submitted to the Commission.

Mr. J. H. Davies and Sir John Williams retort with an attack on the Church figures.

The Rev. J. Morgan Gibbon dissents from the report because in his judgment the enquiry was so conducted as to make it impossible to give any answer at all to some of the chief questions proposed to the Commission.

A note by Archdeacon Evans refers to the report signed by Sir John Williams and Mr. Davies, against which he protests, because they now included important matters which they had thought it right to withhold from the notice of the Commission; because they seek to throw discredit upon Church figures without giving the clergy an opportunity of explaining them, and because they have omitted the most important figures, and ignored material evidence bearing upon them.

With regard to Archdeacon Evans's memorandum, there was some controversy in the Press. Sir D. Brynmor Jones stated that its insertion in the Report was unauthorised and irregular.

Finally, Sir John Williams complains of the restricted scope of the enquiry, and of the refusal of evidence to prove the general progress of religion in Wales.

The Commission naturally dealt only with the tangible interests involved in the question of Establishment. The strength of Welsh national opinion on the matter was voiced by Mr. Ellis Griffiths when he stated that in Wales the Church had been an anti-national institution, not developed from within, but imposed from without.

KING GEORGE'S INCOME.—THE CIVIL LIST.

It was enacted by the Civil List Act of 1910 that the hereditary revenues paid to the Exchequer during the past reign should be so paid during the present reign. This receipt, averaging £499,949 net for the past nine years, appears as Crown Lands in the national accounts.

THE CIVIL LIST.

| | | |
|----------|---|----------|
| Class I. | Their Majesties' Privy Purse | £110,000 |
| „ II. | Salaries of His Majesty's Household and Retired Allowances..... | 125,800 |
| „ III. | Expenses of His Majesty's Household | 193,000 |
| „ IV. | Works | 20,000 |
| „ V. | Royal Bounty and Special Services | 13,200 |
| „ VI. | Unappropriated | 8,000 |
| | | £470,000 |

The annuity payable to Queen Mary in the event of her surviving the King is fixed at £70,000. This is the amount of the annuity at present payable to Queen Alexandra.

No provision is made for the Prince of Wales, who is in receipt of the revenues of the Duchy of Cornwall,

but the annuity payable to the future Princess of Wales will be £10,000, raised to £30,000 in the event of her surviving the Prince.

For the benefit of his Majesty's younger children there will be paid to trustees £10,000 for each son attaining the age of 21 years, with an additional £15,000 on marriage, and £6,000 for each daughter attaining the age of 21 years or marrying.

THE TOTAL CHARGE OF ROYALTY.

| | 1910. |
|--|----------|
| Civil List | £470,000 |
| Pensions transferred | 18,000 |
| Queen Alexandra | 70,000 |
| Princess Christian of Schleswig-Holstein | 6,000 |
| Princess Louise | 6,000 |
| Duke of Connaught | 25,000 |
| Duchess of Edinburgh | 6,000 |
| Duchess of Albany | 6,000 |
| Princess Henry of Battenberg | 6,000 |
| Grand Duchess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz | 3,000 |
| His late Majesty's Daughters | 18,000 |
| | £634,000 |

£400 A YEAR FOR M.P.'s.

It is now 18 years since Sir William Harcourt said that only considerations of time and money stood in the way of providing payment of members of the House of Commons. Payment of members had even then been a plank in the Liberal programme for some years. In 1906 the Liberal party, fresh from the polls, voted in favour of it by 363 to 110, and in 1909 their approval of it was equally emphatic, though the opportunity of the 1906-9 Parliament was wasted. Meanwhile the Labour Party had got round the difficulty by instituting compulsory levies for Parliamentary purposes. But the Osborne judgment, delivered in the House of Lords in 1910, declared such levies illegal, with the result that payment of members suddenly became an urgent and immediate issue.

The necessary provision was made in the Budget of 1911, and the resolution by which effect was given to the Government's intentions was moved in the House of Commons by the Chan-

cellor of the Exchequer on August 10th.

The salary is £400 a year, and is payable to every member not in receipt of a salary as an officer of the House, or as a Minister, or as an officer of H.M. Household.

In the Parliaments of the Overseas Dominions of the British Crown the payments are:—

| | Upper House. | Lower House. |
|-------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Canada | £500 .. | £500 |
| Australian Commonwealth | 600 .. | 600 |
| New South Wales | — | 300 |
| Victoria | — | 300 |
| Queensland | — | 300 |
| South Australia | 200 .. | 200 |
| West Australia | 200 .. | 200 |
| Tasmania | 100 .. | 100 |
| New Zealand | 200 .. | 300 |
| South African Union .. | 400 .. | 400 |

In Canada, New Zealand, and South Africa deductions are made for non-attendance, and travelling expenses are allowed. Free railway passes are given in New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland.

ELECTION PETITIONS, 1911.

Apart from recounts that led to no change in the representation, eight election petitions arose out of the general election of December, 1910. They resulted as follows:—

King's Lynn, against Mr. Holcombe Ingleby (C). Dismissed.

Exeter, against Mr. St. Maur (L). Member had been declared elected by a majority of four. This at the trial was reduced to minority of one, and the seat was awarded to Mr. Duke (C).

West Bromwich, against Lord Lewisham (C). Dismissed, majority being reduced only from five to two.

East Nottingham, against Captain Morrison (C). Dismissed.

Central Hull, against Sir H. S. King (C). Member unseated, consequent on charitable gifts.

N.W. Ham, against Mr. C. F. G. Masterman (L). Member unseated consequent on acts of his agent, in respect of election expenses.

North Louth, against Mr. Richard Hazleton (N.). Member unseated consequent on illegal practices by workers, &c.

East Cork, against Capt. Donelan (N). Member unseated consequent on employment of cars for conveyance of electors to the poll.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Voting Statistics and State of Parties.

The General Election of December, 1910, effected a very small difference in the balance of parties in the House of Commons. The 21 by-elections which took place in 1910 had made no changes in party representation, and the appeal to the country resulted in 29 ministerial and 28 opposition gains, making a net ministerial gain of 1 seat, counting 2 on a division. The exact position at the close of each of the two General Elections of 1910 is shown in the following table, together with the increase or decrease up to November, 1911, consequent on by-elections, recounts, &c.:-

| | Jan., 1910. | Dec., 1910. | Oct., 1911. |
|--------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Liberal | 275 | 272 | 270 |
| Labour | 40 | 42 | 42 |
| Nationalist | 72 | 76 | 78 |
| Ind. Nat. | 10 | 8 | 8 |
| | 397 | 398 | 396 |
| Conser. and Un'ist | 273 | 272 | 274 |
| Govt. Majority .. | 124 | 126 | 122 |

As the result of an election petition the Liberals lost the seat for Exeter by one vote, and the seat for Cheltenham on a poll after a petition by four

votes, so that consequent on the transfer of these two seats the strength of parties at the end of 1911 became 396 to 274.

The actual votes polled in December, 1910, gave the following results:—

| | |
|---------------------------|-----------|
| Liberal, Labour, and | |
| Nationalist | 2,807,753 |
| Conservative and Unionist | 2,426,681 |

But the position is complicated by the fact that in 88 constituencies returning supporters of the Government, and in 71 Conservative and Unionist in complexion no contest took place. A juster idea of the relative strength of figures given below, which are based on a careful computation, made in the Liberal Central Office, to include the voting strength of the Government and the Opposition in uncontested constituencies. In South Manchester, for instance, it is assumed that the polls on both sides would have fallen, as compared with the January polls, in the same ratio as in the five contested divisions of Manchester. This estimate, based throughout the country on similar lines, gives a more exact statement of the political colour of the United Kingdom, which is set out in the table at the foot of this article.

Governments and Majorities since 1832.

The present Government comes sixth in order of majority among the Governments since the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832.

| Seats. | Seats. | Seats. |
|------------|------------|------------------|
| 1832..L370 | 1859..L50 | 1892..L40 |
| 1835..L112 | 1865..L78 | 1895..U152 |
| 1837..L18 | 1868..L116 | 1900..U131 |
| 1841..C76 | 1874..C98 | 1906..L354 |
| 1847..L18 | 1880..L115 | 1910 (Jan) L124 |
| 1852..C20 | 1885..L172 | 1910 (Dec.) L126 |
| 1857..L80 | 1886..U116 | |

The majority in seats at the last five elections has no exact correspondence with voting superiority. The Unionist Government of 1895 had a majority of 152 on a voting majority of 104,000,

while at the General Election of January, 1910, when the Liberal Government out-voted their opponents by 488,377, they secured a majority of only 124 seats. The figures for the present and previous five Parliaments were:—

| | Party. | Majorities, | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|---------|
| | | Seats. | Votes. |
| 1892 | Liberal. | 40 | 200,000 |
| 1895 | Unionist. | 152 | 104,000 |
| 1900 | Unionist. | 131 | 123,000 |
| 1906 | Liberal. | 354 | 836,418 |
| (Jan.) 1910 | Liberal | 124 | 488,377 |
| (Dec.) 1910 | Liberal | 124 | 350,171 |

THE GENERAL ELECTION OF DECEMBER, 1910.

Government Policy endorsed. A Majority of 350,000 Votes.

| | Ministerial. | | Opposition. | | Majority. | |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------|-------------|-------|------------|----------|
| | Votes | Seats | Votes | Seats | Votes | Seats |
| ENGLAND— | | | | | | |
| London | 239,288 | 31 | 274,315 | 30 | U 35,027 | L. 1 |
| *Boroughs | 746,506 | 85 | 724,748 | 85 | L. 21,758 | — |
| Counties | 1,385,026 | 110 | 1,396,864 | 124 | U. 11,838 | U. 14 |
| Total—England..... | *2,370,820 | 226 | 2,395,927 | 239 | U. 25,107 | U. 13 |
| WALES— | 179,551 | 27 | 96,407 | 3 | L. 83,144 | L. 24 |
| SCOTLAND | 369,399 | 61 | 277,265 | 11 | L. 92,134 | L. 50 |
| Total Great Britain | 2,919,770 | 314 | 2,769,599 | 253 | L. 150,171 | L. 61 |
| IRELAND | 350,000 | 84 | 150,000 | 19 | N. 200,000 | N. 165 |
| Total United Kingdom .. | 3,269,770 | 398 | 2,919,599 | 272 | L. 350,171 | Min. 126 |

* Including Universities.

† Including 1 Labour.

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- ¶ The finest tobacco only is used in these Cigarettes.
- ¶ The tobacco seeds are first planted in a soil of famous strength. When the plants are from 1½ to 2 inches high, they are transplanted singly to another soil, carefully chosen and prepared in advance : : :
- ¶ Out of the 200 leaves borne by each plant, only the very finest are then removed and dried. This drying process takes place in sheds where in time the leaves turn yellow and are subsequently transferred to a damp cellar to moisten. When sufficient moisture has been absorbed to prevent splitting in cutting, the leaves are packed in bales and from then onwards begin to assume a reddish colour. After about twenty days the tobacco is matured, and in a further six months selected leaves are ready for use : : : : :
- ¶ All our tobacco is cut by hand and every Cigarette is made by hand in our own premises, which are always open to inspection year in and year out. The blending is so well harmonised by us from Tobaccos grown in several districts that our Cigarettes can be smoked without any of that burning sensation or throat affection which cigarette smokers so frequently complain of : : :
“Darius” Cigarettes are sent to any part of the world upon receipt of postal order or cheque : : :

Prices of “Darius” Cigarettes :

| | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|------|---------|
| Extra | - | - | - | - | - | 5/- | per 100 |
| Extra Fine | - | - | - | - | - | 8/- | ” |
| Gold or Cork Tipped, | - | - | - | - | - | 10/- | ” |

In our genuine Eastern Divan a delicious cup of Turkish Coffee is served to our customers gratis.

The “Darius” Cigarettes can only be obtained from the

PERSIAN CIGARETTE COMPANY,
48, PICCADILLY, LONDON, W.

THE GENERAL ELECTION OF 1910.

(By-Elections Incorporated).

PARLIAMENTARY CONSTITUENCIES.

Arranged in alphabetical order, with Number of Electors in 1910, Votes polled by each Party at the General Election of 1910, and the name of the Sitting Member.

I.—ENGLISH COUNTIES (234 MEMBERS, 2 seats vacant).

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | Lab. & others. | Member |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | | |
| Bedfordshire— | | | | | |
| N. or Biggleswade | 14,031 | 6,536 | 5,808 | — | A. W. Black, L. |
| S. or Luton (<i>By</i>) | 17,177 | 7,619 | 7,006 | — | Cecil Harmsworth, L. |
| Berkshire—N. or Abingdon | 9,255 | 3,323 | 4,677 | — | Major A. G. Henderson, U. |
| S. or Newbury | 13,063 | 4,278 | 6,485 | — | W. A. Mount, U. |
| E. or Wokingham | 14,327 | — | Unop. | — | E. Gardner, U. |
| Buckinghamshire— | | | | | |
| N. or Buckingham | 13,081 | 6,029 | 5,702 | — | Sir H. Verney, L. |
| Mid or Aylesbury | 12,218 | — | Unop. | — | Hon. L. de Rothschild, U. |
| S. or Wycombe | 16,366 | — | Unop. | — | Sir Alfred Cripps, K.C., U. |
| Cambridgeshire— | | | | | |
| N. or Wisbech | 11,713 | 5,401 | 4,857 | — | Hon. Neil Primrose, L. |
| W. or Chesterton | 10,860 | 5,011 | 4,640 | — | Hon. E. S. Montagu, L. |
| E. or Newmarket | 10,366 | 4,786 | 4,387 | — | Sir Chas. Rose, Bt., L. |
| Cheshire—Altrincham | 18,921 | 7,883 | 8,002 | — | J. R. Kebley Fletcher, U. |
| Crewe | 15,866 | 7,629 | 5,925 | — | W. S. B. McLaren, L. |
| Eddisbury | 11,488 | 5,023 | 5,312 | — | H. Barnston, U. |
| Hyde | 12,166 | 5,562 | 5,268 | — | F. Neilson, L. |
| Knutsford | 12,142 | 4,658 | 6,127 | — | A. J. Sykes, U. |
| Macclesfield | 9,306 | 4,410 | 4,142 | — | Col. W. B. Brocklehurst, L. |
| Northwich | 13,389 | 6,071 | 5,741 | — | J. F. L. Brunner, L. |
| Wirral | 22,330 | 7,727 | 10,043 | — | G. Stewart, U. |
| Cornwall—S.E. or Bodmin | 11,553 | 4,980 | 5,021 | — | Lieut.-Gen. Sir R. Pole-Carew, U. |
| N.W. or Camborne | 9,375 | 4,419 | 2,326 | — | F. D. Acland, L. |
| N.E. or Launceston | 9,857 | 4,373 | 3,249 | — | G. C. Marks, L. |
| Mid or St. Austell | 10,968 | Unop. | — | — | Hon. T. C. Agar-Robartes, L. |
| W. or St. Ives | 9,411 | 4,253 | 3,338 | — | Sir Clifford J. Cory, Bt., L. |
| Truro | 10,162 | 4,573 | 4,176 | — | G. Hay Morgan, L. |
| Cumberland— | | | | | |
| Cockermouth | 11,328 | 5,003 | 4,492 | — | Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Bt., L. |
| W. or Egremont | 9,199 | 3,763 | 4,013 | — | J. A. Grant, U. |
| N. or Eskdale | 11,014 | 4,211 | 4,581 | — | C. W. Lowther, U. |
| Mid or Penrith | 8,907 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. James Lowther, U. |
| Derbyshire—Mid | 13,660 | — | 4,287 | 6,557 | J. G. Hancock, Lab. |
| North-East | 17,701 | — | 6,088 | 7,838 | W. E. Harvey, Lab. |
| South | 17,368 | 7,744 | 7,373 | — | H. H. Raphael, L. |
| West | 11,962 | 4,564 | 5,624 | — | Earl of Kerry, U. |
| Chesterfield | 16,248 | — | 5,055 | 7,283 | James Haslam, Lab. |
| High Peak | 12,412 | 5,629 | 5,813 | — | S. Hill Wood, U. |
| Ilkeston | 19,467 | 9,990 | 5,946 | — | Rt. Hon. Col. Seely, L. |
| Devonshire—Mid or Ashburton | 11,976 | 5,225 | 5,579 | — | Capt. E. F. Morrison-Bell, U. |
| N.W. or Barn'le (<i>By</i>) | 13,595 | 6,239 | 5,771 | — | Sir Godfrey Baring, L. |
| E. or Honiton | 10,522 | 3,439 | 5,348 | — | Maj. A. C. Morrison-Bell, U. |
| N. or South Molton | 8,700 | 4,224 | 3,217 | — | Geo. Lambert, L. |
| W. or Tavistock | 15,063 | 6,019 | 6,409 | — | J. W. Spear, U. |
| N.E. or Tiverton | 9,660 | 3,455 | 5,033 | — | Hon. L. Walrond. |
| Torquay | 11,241 | 4,971 | 5,101 | — | Col. C. R. Burn, U. |
| Totnes | 10,107 | 8,040 | 5,252 | — | F. B. Mildmay, U. |
| Dorset—East (<i>By</i>) | 15,335 | Unop. | — | — | Capt. Hon. F. Guest, L. |
| North | 8,616 | 3,887 | 8,919 | — | Sir Randolph Baker, Bt., U. |
| South or Dorchester | 11,440 | — | Unop. | — | Angus Hambro, U. |
| West or Bridport | 7,576 | — | Unop. | — | Col. Robt. Williams, U. |
| Durham—Mid | 15,832 | Unop. | — | — | John Wilson, L. |
| North-West | 18,361 | 8,998 | 4,827 | — | L. Atherley-Jones, K.C., L. |
| South-East | 18,880 | 7,021 | 8,203 | — | E. Hayward, L. |
| Barnard Castle | 12,212 | — | 4,423 | 5,868 | A. Henderson, Lab. |
| Bishop Auckland | 14,552 | 4,531 | 3,519 | 3,993 | Sir H. Havelock-Allan, Bt., L. |
| Chester-le-Street | 23,906 | — | — | Unop. | J. W. Taylor, Lab. |
| Houghton-le-Spring | 17,504 | Unop. | — | — | R. Cameron, L. |
| Jarrow | 13,292 | 5,097 | 4,986 | 4,892 | G. Palmer, L. |
| Essex—Mid or Chelmsford | 13,314 | — | Unop. | — | Capt. E. G. Pretyman, U. |

| Constituency | Elector- ate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | Member |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | Lab. & others. | |
| Essex—W. or Epping | 12,164 | 3,361 | 5,990 | — | Rt. Hon. Lt.-Col. M. Lockwood, U. |
| (con.) N.E. or Harwich | 14,285 | 5,008 | 6,470 | — | H. K. Newton, U. |
| E. or Maldon | 11,517 | 4,693 | 5,386 | — | Sir F. Flannery, Bart., U. |
| S. or Romford | 52,984 | 22,119 | 18,850 | — | Sir J. H. Bethell, L. |
| N. or Saffron Walden | 9,187 | 4,071 | 4,031 | — | A. Cecil Beck, L. |
| S.E. or Tilbury | 24,645 | 8,891 | 10,108 | — | J. H. M. Kirkwood, U. |
| S.W. or Walthamstow | 39,117 | 16,998 | 13,275 | — | Sir J. A. Simon, K.C., L. |
| Gloucestershire— | | | | | |
| E. or Cirencester | 9,934 | 4,007 | 4,788 | — | Col. The Hon. A. B. Bathurst, U. |
| Forest of Dean (By) | 10,881 | 6,174 | 3,106 | — | Harry Webb, L. |
| Mid or Stroud | 10,992 | 5,051 | 4,849 | — | C. P. Allen, L. |
| N. or Tewkesbury | 13,155 | 5,267 | 5,699 | — | Hon. M. Hicks-Beach, U. |
| S. or Thornbury | 14,742 | 6,820 | 5,837 | — | A. Rendall, L. |
| Hampshire—W. or Andover | 11,370 | — | Unop. | — | Capt. W. V. Faber, U. |
| N.W. or Basingstoke | 13,136 | — | Unop. | — | A. Clavell Salter, K.C., U. |
| S. or Fareham | 18,695 | — | Unop. | — | Arthur H. Lee, U. |
| Isle of Wight | 15,969 | 6,969 | 7,192 | — | D. B. Hall, U. |
| New Forest | 12,118 | — | Unop. | — | W. Frank Perkins, U. |
| E. or Petersfield | 11,110 | — | Unop. | — | W. G. Nicholson, U. |
| Hereford—N. or Loominster | 9,689 | 3,431 | 4,600 | — | Sir James Rankin, Bt., U. |
| S. or Ross | 10,946 | 4,627 | 4,748 | — | Capt. P. A. Clive, U. |
| Hertfordshire— | | | | | |
| E. or Hertford | 11,838 | 4,226 | 5,594 | — | Sir John Rolleston, U. |
| N. or Hitchin | 10,885 | 3,942 | 5,233 | — | Vacant. |
| Mid or St. Albans | 13,929 | 4,777 | 6,899 | — | Col. Sir E. H. Carlisle, U. |
| W. or Watford | 17,710 | 7,160 | 8,043 | — | Arnold Ward, U. |
| Hunts—South Huntingdon | 5,175 | 2,139 | 2,287 | — | J. Cator, U. |
| N. or Ramsey | 7,034 | 2,954 | 3,072 | — | O. Locker-Hampson, U. |
| Kent—S. or Ashford | 14,202 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. Laurence Hardy, U. |
| N.W. or Dartford | 21,398 | 9,152 | 8,918 | — | J. Rowlands, L. |
| N.E. or Faversham | 14,649 | 5,111 | 6,897 | — | G. C. H. Wheeler, U. |
| Mid or Medway | 15,181 | — | Unop. | — | Col. C. E. Warde, U. |
| E. or St. Augustine's (By) | 17,177 | — | Unop. | — | Ronald McNeill, U. |
| W. or Sevenoaks | 19,035 | — | Unop. | — | H. W. Forster, U. |
| Isle of Thanet | 12,588 | — | Unop. | — | Norman Craig, K.C., U. |
| S.W. or Tonbridge | 17,116 | 6,159 | 8,286 | — | Capt. H. Spender-Clay, U. |
| Lancashire— | | | | | |
| N. Blackpool | 22,360 | — | Unop. | — | W. W. Ashley, U. |
| Chorley | 14,347 | 4,887 | 7,423 | — | Eord Balcarres, U. |
| Lancaster | 14,797 | 6,186 | 6,052 | — | N. W. Helme, L. |
| North Lonsdale | 9,702 | 4,066 | 4,140 | — | G. B. Haddock, U. |
| Accrington | 16,297 | 8,129 | 6,461 | — | H. Baker, L. |
| N.E. Clitheroe | 22,368 | — | 5,783 | 12,107 | A. Smith, Lab. |
| Darwen | 17,734 | 8,169 | 8,384 | — | J. Rutherford, U. |
| Rossendale | 13,217 | 6,169 | 5,206 | — | Rt. Hon. L. V. Harcourt, L. |
| Eccles | 18,786 | 8,467 | 7,676 | — | Sir G. H. Pollard, L. |
| Gorton | 18,175 | — | 7,187 | 7,840 | John Hodge, Lab. |
| Heywood | 11,339 | 5,430 | 4,641 | — | H. T. Cawley, L. |
| Middleton (By) | 15,447 | 6,863 | 6,452 | — | Sir W. R. Adkins, K.C., L. |
| S.E. Prestwich | 22,123 | 10,355 | 7,189 | — | Sir F. Cawley, Bart., L. |
| Radcliffe-c-F'n'wth | 14,046 | 6,721 | 5,937 | — | T. C. Taylor, L. |
| Stretford | 27,629 | 11,343 | 10,467 | — | Henry Nuttall, L. |
| West Houghton | 19,751 | — | 7,974 | 9,064 | W. T. Wilson, Lab. |
| Bootle (By) | 25,470 | 7,782 | 9,976 | — | Rt. Hon. A. Bonar Law, U. |
| Ince | 14,107 | — | 5,332 | 7,117 | S. Walsh, Lab. |
| Leigh | 14,150 | 6,790 | 5,507 | — | P. W. Rafter, L. |
| S.W. Newton | 14,803 | — | 6,706 | 6,562 | Viscount Wolmer, U. |
| Ormskirk | 13,511 | — | Unop. | — | Hon. Arthur Stanley, U. |
| Southport | 16,660 | 6,798 | 7,467 | — | Maj. Dalrymple White, U. |
| Widnes | 11,780 | — | Unop. | — | Col. W. Hall Walker, U. |
| Leicestershire— | | | | | |
| W. or Bosworth | 13,681 | 7,500 | 4,120 | — | H. D. McLaren, L. |
| S. or Harborough | 17,921 | 8,192 | 7,115 | — | J. W. Logan, L. |
| Mid or Loughborough | 13,754 | 6,488 | 5,916 | — | Sir M. Levy, L. |
| E. or Melton | 16,873 | 7,257 | 7,599 | — | Col. C. E. Yate, U. |
| Lincs.—Brigg | 14,048 | 6,506 | 5,637 | — | Sir W. A. Gelder, L. |
| Gainsborough | 13,164 | 5,825 | 5,745 | — | G. J. Bentham, L. |
| Horncastle (By) | 10,508 | 4,848 | 4,955 | — | Capt. A. G. Weigall, U. |
| Louth | 10,315 | 4,260 | 4,188 | — | T. Davies, L. |
| Sleaford | 10,389 | — | Unop. | — | E. Roys, U. |
| Spalding | 14,846 | 5,235 | 5,070 | — | F. W. S. McLaren, L. |
| Stamford | 10,056 | 4,206 | 4,545 | — | Major Hon. C. Willoughby, U. |

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | Member |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|--------|------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | Lab. & other. | |
| Middlesex—Brentford (By).... | 21,462 | — | Unop. | — | W. Joynson Hicks, U. |
| Ealing | 25,073 | — | Unop. | — | Herbert Nield, U. |
| Enfield | 28,571 | 10,559 | 11,495 | — | Capt. J. R. P. Newman, U. |
| Harrow | 35,379 | — | Unop. | — | H. Mallaby-Deeley, U. |
| Hornsey | 23,540 | 7,013 | 11,066 | — | Lord Ronaldshay, U. |
| Tottenham | 29,260 | 12,046 | 10,945 | — | Percy Alden, L. |
| Uxbridge | 17,634 | 4,286 | 9,005 | — | Hon. C. T. Mills, U. |
| Monmouthshire—North | 15,711 | 7,722 | 4,586 | — | Rt. Hon. R. McKenna, L. |
| West | 20,399 | — | — | Unop. | Thomas Richards, Lab. |
| South | 19,134 | 8,597 | 6,656 | — | Maj.-Gen. Sir Ivor Herbert, Bt., L. |
| Norfolk—E. or North Walsham | 11,560 | 5,265 | 3,865 | — | Sir R. J. Price, L. |
| Mid or Dereham | 9,984 | 4,303 | 4,345 | — | W. L. Boyle, U. |
| North or Aylsham | 11,169 | 5,187 | 4,491 | — | Noel Buxton, L. |
| North-West | 11,613 | 5,407 | 4,264 | — | Sir G. White, L. |
| S. or Diss | 9,779 | 4,740 | 3,212 | — | A. W. Soames, L. |
| S.W. or Thetford | 9,045 | 4,176 | 3,745 | — | R. Winfrey, L. |
| Northamptonshire—E. or Well- ingborough | 17,470 | 7,430 | 6,676 | 1,431 | L. G. Chiozza Money, L. |
| Mid | 14,189 | 6,281 | 6,031 | — | H. Manfield, L. |
| North | 10,767 | 4,221 | 5,272 | — | H. L. C. Brassey, U. |
| South | 9,290 | 3,827 | 4,340 | — | Hon. E. A. Fitzroy, U. |
| Northumberland— | | | | | |
| Berwick | 9,420 | 4,612 | 2,926 | — | Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Grey, Bt., L. |
| Hexham | 11,151 | 5,124 | 4,334 | — | R. D. Holt, L. |
| Tyneside | 25,667 | 11,693 | 6,857 | — | J. McKinnon Robertson, L. |
| Wansbeck | 18,959 | Unop. | — | — | Rt. Hon. Chas. Fenwick, L. |
| Nottingham—Bassetlaw | 12,012 | 5,221 | 5,436 | — | W. E. Hume Williams, K.C., U. |
| Newark | 11,320 | 4,307 | 5,049 | — | J. R. Starkey, U. |
| Mansfield | 21,075 | 11,383 | 4,200 | — | A. B. Markham, L. |
| Rushcliffe | 19,640 | 9,186 | 6,560 | — | Leif Jones, L. |
| Oxfordshire—N. or Banbury | 8,021 | 3,629 | 3,538 | — | Hon. Eustace Fiennes, L. |
| S. or Henley | 10,536 | 3,701 | 5,340 | — | V. Fleming, U. |
| Mid or Woodstock | 10,525 | 4,381 | 4,773 | — | A. St. G. Hamersley, U. |
| Rutlandshire | 4,128 | 1,367 | 2,169 | — | J. Gretton, U. |
| Shropshire—S. or Ludlow | 10,530 | — | Unop. | — | Rowland Hunt, U. |
| N. or Newport | 10,886 | — | Unop. | — | B. Stanier, U. |
| W. or Oswestry | 10,151 | 4,121 | 4,867 | — | W. Clive Bridgeman, U. |
| Mid or Wellington | 8,751 | 4,404 | 3,286 | — | Sir C. S. Henry, Bt., L. |
| Somerset—Bridgwater | 10,341 | 3,779 | 5,180 | — | R. A. Sanders, U. |
| East | 9,791 | 3,875 | 4,748 | — | Ernest Jardine, U. |
| Frome | 13,168 | 5,944 | 5,366 | — | Sir J. Emmott Barlow, Bt., L. |
| North | 13,492 | 6,299 | 5,378 | — | J. King, L. |
| South | 10,164 | — | — | — | Vacant. |
| W. or Wellington (By) | 10,696 | 4,421 | 5,025 | — | Col. D. F. Boles, U. |
| Wells | 12,642 | 4,094 | 6,178 | — | G. J. Sandys, U. |
| Staffordshire—Barton | 11,878 | 3,784 | 5,877 | — | Lieut. Col. R. F. Ratcliff, U. |
| Handsworth | 28,937 | — | Unop. | — | Major E. C. Meysey-Thompson, U. |
| Kingswinford | 14,076 | — | Unop. | — | H. Staveley Hill, U. |
| Leek | 12,079 | 5,742 | 5,152 | — | Robert Pearce, L. |
| Lichfield | 10,703 | 5,058 | 4,213 | — | Col. Sir T. C. Warner, Bart., L. |
| North-West | 16,498 | — | 4,940 | 8,125 | A. Stanley, Lab. |
| West | 12,197 | 5,123 | 5,602 | — | G. A. Lloyd, U. |
| Suffolk—N.E. or Eye | 10,621 | 4,927 | 4,157 | — | Harold Pearson, L. |
| N. or Lowestoft | 15,084 | 6,248 | 5,983 | — | Sir Edward Beauchamp, Bt., L. |
| N.W. or Stowmarket | 11,190 | 4,804 | 4,995 | — | F. Goldsmith, U. |
| S. or Sudbury | 10,036 | — | Unop. | — | W. E. C. Quilter, U. |
| S.E. or Woodbridge | 12,808 | 5,144 | 5,704 | — | Capt. R. F. Peel, U. |
| Surrey—N.W. or Chertsey | 16,723 | — | Unop. | — | D. Macmaster, K.C., U. |
| Mid or Epsom | 18,821 | — | Unop. | — | W. Keswick, U. |
| S.W. or Guildford | 16,020 | 4,832 | 3,463 | — | W. E. Horne, U. |
| Kingston | 19,647 | — | Unop. | — | George Cave, K.C., U. |
| S.E. or Reigate | 15,636 | 5,194 | 7,710 | — | Col. R. H. Rawson, U. |
| N.E. or Wimbledon | 27,810 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. Henry Chaplin, U. |
| Sussex—S.W. or Chichester | 12,147 | 2,985 | 5,900 | — | Lord Edmund Talbot, U. |
| S. or Eastbourne | 14,172 | 4,920 | 6,873 | — | R. S. Gwyne, U. |
| N. or East Grinstead | 11,562 | 3,531 | 5,026 | — | H. S. Cautley, U. |
| N.W. or Horsham | 11,484 | — | Unop. | — | Lord Winterton, U. |
| Mid or Lewes | 17,277 | — | Unop. | — | W. R. Campion, U. |
| E. or Rye | 13,746 | 4,461 | 6,673 | — | G. L. Courthope, U. |
| Warwickshire— | | | | | |
| N.E. or Nuneaton | 17,451 | — | 7,501 | 8,199 | W. Johnson, Lab. |
| S.E. or Rugby | 12,275 | 4,941 | 5,712 | — | J. L. Baird, U. |
| S.W. or Stratford | 10,835 | 3,462 | 5,147 | — | P. S. Foster, U. |
| N. or Tamworth | 18,228 | — | Unop. | — | F. A. Newdegate-Newdigate, U. |

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | Lab. & others. | Member |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | | |
| Westmorland—N. or Appleby.. | 6,556 | 2,679 | 3,258 | — | L. Sanderson, K.C., U. |
| S. or Kendal .. | 6,646 | 2,733 | 3,041 | — | Lieut. Col. J. F. Bagot, U. |
| Wiltshire—W. or Chippenham.. | 9,175 | 4,113 | 4,139 | — | George Terrell, U. |
| N. or Cricklade | 15,203 | 6,937 | 6,809 | — | R. C. Lambert, L. |
| E. or Devizes | 9,277 | 3,670 | 4,408 | — | Basil Peto, U. |
| W. or Westbury (<i>By</i>) .. | 10,411 | 5,073 | 4,492 | — | Hon. Geoffrey Howard, L. |
| S. or Wilton | 9,072 | 3,769 | 4,356 | — | C. Bathurst, U. |
| Worcestershire— | | | | | |
| S. or Evesham | 10,416 | — | Unop. | — | B. M. Eyres-Monsell, U. |
| North | 18,200 | 7,894 | 7,625 | — | J. W. Wilson, L. |
| W. or Bewdley | 10,638 | — | Unop. | — | S. Baldwin, U. |
| Mid or Droitwich | 11,200 | 4,808 | 4,880 | — | Hon. J. C. Lyttelton, U. |
| E. King's Norton | 23,269 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. Austen Chamberlain, U. |
| Yorkshire—East Riding— | | | | | |
| Buckrose | 10,652 | 4,867 | 4,635 | — | Sir Luke White, L. |
| Holderness | 10,850 | 4,480 | 4,861 | — | A. Stanley Wilson, U. |
| Howdenshire | 10,597 | 3,885 | 5,016 | — | Col. H. B. Harrison-Broadley, U. |
| Yorkshire—North Riding— | | | | | |
| Cleveland | 14,811 | 6,870 | 5,343 | — | Rt. Hon. Herbert Samuel, L. |
| Richmond | 10,485 | — | Unop. | — | Hon. W. G. Orde-Powlett, U. |
| Thirsk and Malton | 13,363 | — | Unop. | — | Viscount Helmsley, U. |
| Whitby | 11,200 | 4,508 | 4,960 | — | Hon. Gervase Beckett, U. |
| Yorkshire—West Riding— | | | | | |
| E. or Barkston Ash | 10,871 | 4,372 | 5,066 | — | G. R. Lane Fox, U. |
| S. or Barnsley | 20,861 | Unop. | — | — | Sir J. Walton, Bt., L. |
| Colne Valley | 12,489 | 5,147 | 4,847 | — | Dr. C. Leach, L. |
| S. or Doncaster | 21,511 | 9,240 | 6,696 | — | C. N. Nicholson, L. |
| N. or Elland | 13,956 | 6,613 | 4,549 | — | C. P. Trevelyan, L. |
| Hallamshire | 19,935 | — | 5,837 | 8,708 | John Wadsworth, Lab. |
| S. or Holmfirth | 12,788 | Unop. | — | — | H. J. Wilson, L. |
| N. or Keighley | 13,373 | 4,667 | 3,842 | 3,452 | S. O. Bucknaster, L. |
| S. or Morley | 15,823 | Unop. | — | — | Gerald France, L. |
| S. or Normanton | 16,466 | — | — | Unop. | F. Hall, Lab. |
| E. or Osgoldcross | 18,286 | 8,518 | 4,347 | — | Rt. Hon. Sir J. Compton-Rickett, |
| Otley | 13,397 | 6,151 | 4,892 | — | J. H. Duncan, L. |
| Pudsey | 15,071 | 6,518 | 5,888 | — | F. Ogden, L. |
| E. or Ripon | 12,860 | 5,020 | 5,894 | — | Hon. E. F. L. Wood, U. |
| S. or Rotherham | 20,487 | 9,385 | 4,511 | — | Rt. Hon. J. A. Pease, L. |
| N. or Shipley | 16,329 | — | Unop. | — | P. Illingworth, L. |
| N. or Skipton | 13,864 | 6,151 | 6,100 | — | W. Clough, L. |
| N. or Sowerby | 12,805 | Unop. | — | — | J. S. Higham, L. |
| Spen Valley | 11,631 | 5,041 | 4,545 | — | Rt. Hon. Sir T. P. Whittaker, L. |

II.—ENGLISH BOROUGHES. A.—LONDON BOROUGHES (59 Members).

| | | | | | |
|------------------------------|--------|-------|-------|--------|------------------------------|
| London (City) (2 members) .. | 30,010 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. A. J. Balfour, U. |
| Battersea and Clapham— | | | | | Sir F. Banbury, U. |
| Battersea | 18,927 | 7,836 | 6,544 | 487(s) | Rt. Hon. John Burns, L. |
| Clapham | 22,611 | 7,639 | 9,560 | — | G. D. Faber, U. |
| Bethnal Green—N.E. | 7,554 | 3,188 | 2,037 | — | Sir E. A. Cornwall, L. |
| S.W. (<i>By</i>) | 7,183 | 2,745 | 2,561 | 131 | C. F. G. Masterman, L. |
| Camberwell—North | 11,918 | 5,038 | 4,056 | — | Rt. Hon. T. J. Macnamara, L. |
| Dulwich | 16,478 | 5,495 | 7,796 | — | F. Hall, U. |
| Peckham | 12,341 | 5,027 | 4,986 | — | Albion Richardson, L. |
| Chelsea | 11,257 | 3,249 | 4,986 | — | S. J. G. Hoare, U. |
| Deptford | 15,159 | — | 5,999 | 6,357 | C. W. Bowdlerman, Lab. |
| Finsbury—Central | 8,094 | 2,804 | 3,335 | — | Major M. Archer Shee, U. |
| East | 4,855 | 2,023 | 1,900 | — | J. A. Baker, L. |
| Holborn | 8,608 | 1,615 | 4,313 | — | J. F. Rennant, U. |
| Fulham | 21,009 | 6,526 | 8,252 | — | Rt. Hon. W. Hayes-Fisher, U. |
| Greenwich | 13,153 | 4,146 | 5,697 | — | I. Hamilton Benn, U. |
| Hackney—Central | 9,343 | 3,954 | 3,464 | — | Sir A. Spicer, Bt., L. |
| North | 11,789 | 4,126 | 5,290 | — | W. Raymond Greene, U. |
| South | 14,123 | 5,068 | 3,243 | 1,946 | H. Bottomley, L. |
| Hammersmith | 14,362 | 4,645 | 5,807 | — | Sir W. J. Bull, U. |
| Hampstead | 12,050 | 3,129 | 5,605 | — | J. S. Fletcher, U. |
| Islington—North | 12,677 | 5,022 | 5,428 | — | G. A. Touche, U. |
| South | 8,268 | 3,494 | 2,803 | — | T. Wiles, L. |
| East | 11,118 | 4,503 | 4,378 | — | G. H. Radford, L. |
| West | 8,544 | 3,549 | 2,985 | — | Rt. Hon. T. Lough, L. |
| Kensington—North | 10,100 | 3,494 | 4,223 | — | Alan Burgoyne, U. |
| South | 9,159 | 1,033 | 5,093 | — | Lord Claud Hamilton, U. |

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Pollcd in 1910 | | Lab. & other. | Member |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------|------------------|--------------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | | |
| Lambeth—Brixton | 11,442 | 3,702 | 4,770 | — | Davison Dalziel, U. |
| Kennington | 10,088 | 3,565 | 3,510 | — | Stephen Collins, L. |
| North | 6,440 | 2,202 | 2,531 | — | Maj. W. Houghton Gastrell, U. |
| Norwood | 13,908 | 4,265 | 6,291 | — | Sir Harry Samuel, U. |
| Jewisham | 25,021 | 6,792 | 11,179 | — | Major E. F. Coates, U. |
| Marylebone—East | 6,759 | 1,605 | 3,376 | — | James Boynton, U. |
| West | 8,576 | 1,926 | 3,929 | — | Sir Samuel Scott, Bart., U. |
| Newington—Walworth | 8,521 | 3,248 | 2,994 | — | J. A. Dawes, L. |
| West | 9,635 | 4,038 | 3,498 | — | Captain Cecil Norton, L. |
| Paddington—North | 10,945 | 3,662 | 4,251 | — | A. Strauss, U. |
| South | 6,415 | 1,274 | 3,210 | — | H. P. Harris, U. |
| St. George's, Hanover Square | 8,954 | 1,188 | 4,398 | — | Rt. Hon. A. Lyttelton, U. |
| St. Pancras—East | 9,487 | 3,891 | 3,038 | 22 | Hon. J. Martin, L. |
| West | 8,589 | 3,376 | 3,384 | W. Suff. | Felix Cassel, K.C., U. |
| North | 9,977 | 4,407 | 3,230 | — | W. H. Dickinson, L. |
| South | 5,536 | 1,744 | 2,415 | — | Captain H. M. Jessel, U. |
| Shoreditch—Haggerston | 7,936 | 3,046 | 2,641 | — | H. G. Chancellor, L. |
| Hoxton | 8,530 | 3,489 | 2,795 | — | Dr. C. Addison, L. |
| Southwark—Bermondsey | 12,115 | 4,911 | 3,695 | — | H. J. Glanville, L. |
| Rotherhithe | 9,990 | 4,030 | 3,026 | — | H. W. Carr-Gomm, L. |
| West | 8,060 | 3,028 | 3,010 | — | E. A. Strauss, L. |
| Strand | 8,019 | 1,138 | 4,134 | — | Rt. Hon. Walter Long, U. |
| Tower Hamlets— | | | | | |
| Bow and Bromley | 10,330 | — | 3,452 | 4,315 | G. Lansbury, Lab. |
| Limehouse | 6,405 | 2,557 | 2,126 | — | W. Pearce, L. |
| Mile End | 5,464 | 2,176 | 2,178 | — | Hon. H. L. W. Lawson, U. |
| Poplar | 8,857 | 3,977 | 2,148 | — | Rt. Hon. Sydney Buxton, L. |
| St. George's-in-the-East | 3,133 | 1,401 | 1,022 | — | W. Wedgwood Benn, L. |
| Stepney | 4,653 | 1,926 | 1,811 | — | W. S. Glyn-Jones, L. |
| Whitechapel | 3,986 | 1,752 | 1,191 | — | S. M. Samuel, L. |
| Wandsworth | 38,523 | 10,554 | 15,168 | — | Sir H. Kimber, U. |
| Westminster | 7,284 | 1,228 | 3,397 | — | W. L. A. B. Burdett Coutts, U. |
| Woolwich | 18,536 | — | 8,016 | 8,252 | W. Crooks, Lab. |

B.—BOROUGHES IN THE COUNTIES (167 Members, 2 seats vacant).

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------------------------------|
| Ashton-under-Lyne | 8,595 | 3,848 | 4,044 | — | W. M. Aitken, U. |
| Aston Manor | 11,894 | — | Unop. | — | E. Cecil, U. |
| Barrow-in-Furness | 10,478 | — | 4,290 | 4,810 | C. Duncan, Lab. |
| Bath (2 members) | 8,144 | 3,631 | 3,875 | — | Lord A. Thynne, U. |
| Bedford | 6,063 | 3,585 | 3,841 | — | Sir C. R. Hunter, Bt., U. |
| Birkenhead | 18,189 | 2,773 | 2,754 | — | F. Kellaway, L. |
| Birmingham—Central | 9,908 | 7,249 | 8,304 | — | A. Bigland, U. |
| East | 15,244 | 1,417 | 4,640 | — | Ebenezer Parkes, U. |
| North | 8,452 | 3,190 | 6,639 | — | A. D. Steel-Maitland, U. |
| South (By) | 10,899 | — | Unop. | — | J. T. Middlemore, U. |
| West | 12,313 | — | Unop. | — | L. S. Amery, U. |
| Bordesley | 17,358 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. J. Chamberlain, U. |
| Edgbaston | 13,383 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. J. Collings, U. |
| Blackburn (2 members) | 22,572 | 10,754 | 9,814 | 10,762 | Sir F. W. Lowe, U. |
| P. Snowden, Lab. | | | 9,500 | — | |
| Bolton (2 members) | 21,341 | 10,358 | 8,697 | 10,108 | Sir H. Norman, L. |
| G. Harwood, L. | | | | — | |
| Boston | 4,037 | 1,712 | 1,875 | — | A. H. Gill, Lab. |
| Bradford—Central | 9,848 | 4,677 | 3,381 | — | C. H. Dixon, U. |
| East | 15,879 | 7,778 | 4,734 | — | Sir G. S. Robertson, L. |
| West | 14,825 | — | 4,339 | 7,729 | Sir W. E. B. Priestley, L. |
| Brighton (2 members) | 21,427 | 6,723 | 10,780 | — | F. W. Jowett, Lab. |
| (By) | 21,996 | 6,699 | 10,757 | — | Capt. G. C. Tryon, U. |
| Bristol—East | 15,060 | 7,229 | 4,263 | — | J. E. Gordon, U. |
| North | 13,989 | 6,410 | 5,084 | — | Rt. Hon. C. E. Hobhouse, L.* |
| South | 16,171 | 6,895 | 6,757 | — | Rt. Hon. A. Birrell, L. |
| West | 10,127 | 3,595 | 4,871 | — | Sir W. Howell Davies, L. |
| Burnley | 16,992 | 6,177 | 6,004 | — | Col. G. A. Gibbs, U. |
| Bury (Lanes.) | 9,657 | 4,509 | 4,254 | — | Philip Morrell, L. |
| Bury St. Edmunds | 2,817 | — | Unop. | — | G. Toulmin, L. |
| Cambridge | 9,392 | 4,084 | 4,427 | — | Hon. Walter Guinness, U. |
| Canterbury | 3,836 | 623 | 1,163 | 1,635 | A. Paget, U. |
| F. Bennett Goldney, I.U. | | | | — | |

* By-election pending.

| Constituency | Elector- ate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | Member |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|--------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | Lab. & other. | |
| Carlisle | 7,436 | 3,243 | 3,179 | — | Hon. R. D. Denman, L. |
| Chatham | 15,799 | 4,302 | 6,989 | 1,103 | G. F. Hobler, K.C., U. |
| Cheltenham (<i>By</i>) | 8,712 | 4,039 | 4,013 | — | J. T. Agg-Gardner, C. |
| Chester | 8,102 | 3,681 | 3,787 | — | R. A. Yerburgh, U. |
| Christchurch | 10,991 | 4,619 | 5,275 | — | H. Page Croft, U. |
| Colchester | 7,226 | 2,874 | 3,489 | — | L. W. Evans, U. |
| Coventry | 16,463 | 7,351 | 6,828 | — | D. M. Mason, L. |
| Croydon | 27,350 | 10,343 | 11,875 | — | Ian Malcolm, U. |
| Darlington | 10,097 | 4,475 | 4,881 | — | H. Pike Pease, U. |
| Derby (2 members) | 20,113 | 9,515 | 8,160 | 9,144 | Sir T. Roe, L. |
| | | | | | J. H. Thomas, Lab. |
| Devonport (2 members) | 12,125 | 4,841 | 5,170 | — | Sir J. Jackson, U. |
| | | 4,782 | 5,111 | — | Sir C. Kinloch-Cooke, U. |
| Dewsbury | 14,389 | 7,061 | 4,033 | — | Rt. Hon. W. Runciman, L. |
| Dover | 6,247 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. G. Wyndham, U. |
| Dudley | 17,483 | 7,900 | 8,260 | — | Col. A. Griffith Boscawen, U. |
| Durham | 2,601 | 877 | 1,313 | — | J. W. Hills, U. |
| Exeter (<i>Scrutiny, April 11th</i>) | 10,383 | 4,776 | 4,777 | — | H. E. Duke, K.C., U. |
| Gateshead | 19,138 | 8,763 | 5,608 | — | H. Elverston, L. |
| Gloucester | 8,475 | 3,899 | 3,903 | — | H. Terrell, K.C., U. |
| Grantham | 3,647 | 1,697 | 1,730 | — | Sir Arthur Priestley, U. |
| Gravesend | 6,733 | 2,506 | 3,108 | — | Sir G. Parker, U. |
| Grimsby, Great | 18,029 | 7,205 | 7,903 | — | Sir G. Doughty, U. |
| Hallfax (2 members) | 15,528 | 8,778 | 4,602 | 8,511 | Rt. Hon. J. H. Whitley, L. |
| | | | 4,420 | — | J. Parker, Lab. |
| Hanley | 16,543 | — | 4,659 | 8,342 | Enoch Edwards, Lab. |
| Hartlepool | 13,708 | 6,017 | 5,969 | — | S. Furness, L. |
| Hastings | 9,027 | 3,515 | 4,397 | — | A. Du Cros, U. |
| Hereford | 4,066 | 1,430 | 2,200 | — | J. S. Arkwright, U. |
| Huddersfield | 19,021 | 6,458 | 5,777 | 4,983 | A. J. Sherwell, L. |
| Hull—Central (<i>By</i>) | 8,712 | 3,545 | 3,823 | — | Mark Sykes, U. |
| East | 14,687 | 7,196 | 5,387 | — | T. R. Ferens, L. |
| West | 22,609 | 9,236 | 7,913 | — | Hon. Guy G. Wilson, L. |
| Hythe | 6,541 | — | Unop. | — | Sir Edward Sassoon, Bt., U. |
| Ipswich (2 members) | 12,641 | 5,931 | 5,447 | — | Sir D. F. Goddard, L. |
| | | 5,791 | 5,409 | — | Rev. C. Silvester Horne, L. |
| Kidderminster | 4,579 | 2,003 | 2,188 | — | Capt. E. Knight, U. |
| King's Lynn | 3,575 | 1,665 | 1,765 | — | H. Ingleby, U. |
| Leeds—Central | 8,369 | 3,519 | 3,169 | — | Robert Armitage, L. |
| East | 9,419 | — | 1,892 | 4,028 | J. O'Grady, Lab. |
| North | 22,965 | 9,324 | 9,056 | — | Rowland H. Barran, L. |
| South | 15,723 | 6,064 | 3,801 | 2,706 | W. Middlebrook, L. |
| West | 18,868 | 8,715 | 4,445 | — | T. E. Harvey, L. |
| Leicester (2 members) | 25,336 | 13,238 | 7,547 | 12,998 | E. Crawshaw Williams, L. |
| | | | | | J. Ramsay Macdonald, Lab. |
| Lincoln | 11,577 | 5,481 | 4,878 | — | C. Roberts, L. |
| Liverpool—Abercromby | 6,926 | 2,184 | 3,024 | — | Col. R. G. W. Chaloner, U. |
| Everton | 9,308 | — | Unop. | — | J. S. Harwood Banner, U. |
| Exelange | 5,602 | 2,187 | 2,330 | — | Leslie Scott, K.C., U. |
| Kirkdale | 10,361 | — | 4,205 | 2,992 | Col. G. Kyffin Taylor, U. |
| Scotland | 5,326 | — | 689 | 2,458 | T. P. O'Connor, N. |
| | | | | Nat. | |
| Toxteth, East | 9,514 | 3,121 | 4,087 | — | Marshall Hall, K.C., U. |
| West | 9,109 | 2,445 | 3,938 | — | R. P. Houston, U. |
| Walton | 15,670 | 5,039 | 6,383 | — | F. E. Smith, K.C., U. |
| West Derby | 11,467 | 2,943 | 4,908 | — | W. W. Rutherford, U. |
| Maidstone | 6,260 | 2,836 | 2,906 | — | Viscount Castlereagh, U. |
| Manchester—North-East | 9,925 | — | 4,108 | 4,313 | J. R. Clynes, Lab. |
| North-West | 11,961 | 5,559 | 5,114 | — | Sir George Kemp, L. |
| North | 10,284 | 4,001 | 3,936 | — | Sir C. E. Schwann, Bt., L. |
| East | 12,646 | — | 4,653 | 5,524 | J. E. Sutton, Lab. |
| South-West | 8,180 | 3,590 | 3,331 | — | C. T. Needham, L. |
| South | 15,594 | Unop. | — | — | A. A. Haworth, L. |
| Middlesbrough | 21,756 | 10,313 | 6,568 | — | Penry Williams, L. |
| Monmouth District | 12,934 | 6,154 | 5,056 | — | L. Haslam, L. |
| Morpeth | 10,010 | Unop. | — | — | Rt. Hon. T. Burt, L. |
| Newcastle-under-Lyme | 10,512 | 5,280 | 4,087 | — | J. C. Wedgwood, L. |
| Newcastle-upon-Tyne (2 mems.) | 38,534 | 16,599 | 12,915 | 16,447 | E. Shortt, K.C., L. |
| | | | 12,849 | — | W. Hudson, Lab. |
| | | | | — | C. A. McCurdy, L. |
| | | | | — | H. B. Lees Smith, L. |
| Northampton (2 members) | 12,580 | 6,179 | 4,885 | — | |
| | | 6,025 | 4,550 | — | |

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Pollcd in 1910 | | | Member |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------|------------------|---|
| | | Lib. | Un. | Lab. & other. | |
| Norwich (2 members) | 21,607 | 10,149 | 7,758 | 10,003 | Sir F. Lowe, K.C., L. G. Roberts, Lab. |
| Nottingham—South | 14,031 | 5,766 | 6,151 | — | Lord H. Cavendish Bentinck, U. |
| East | 13,218 | 4,804 | 6,274 | — | Capt. J. A. Morrison, U. |
| West | 17,476 | 8,141 | 5,949 | — | Sir James Yoxall, L. |
| Oldham (2 members) | 35,315 | — | — | — | Vacant |
| Oxford City | 9,227 | 16,941 | 13,281 | — | A. W. Barton, L. |
| Penryn and Falmouth | 3,215 | 3,318 | 4,664 | — | Viscount Valentia, U. |
| Peterborough | 6,564 | 1,291 | 1,585 | — | C. S. Goldman, U. |
| Plymouth (2 members) | 18,085 | 3,102 | 2,799 | — | George Greenwood, L. |
| | | 7,379 | 8,113 | — | W. W. Astor, U. |
| | | 7,260 | 7,942 | — | Shirley Benn, U. |
| Pontefract | 3,661 | 1,679 | 1,627 | — | F. Handel Booth, L. |
| Portsmouth (2 members) | 33,666 | 13,146 | 15,125 | — | Adm. Lord Charles Beresford, U. |
| | | 13,013 | 14,856 | — | B. G. Falle, U. |
| Preston (2 members) | 19,521 | 8,193 | 9,184 | 7,855 | Maj. the Hon. G. F. Stanley, U. |
| | | | 8,993 | Lab. | A. A. Tobin, K.C., U. |
| Reading | 11,016 | 5,094 | 4,995 | — | Sir Rufus Isaacs, K.C., L. |
| Rochdale | 14,909 | 5,850 | 5,373 | — | A. G. C. Harvey, L. |
| Rochester | 5,629 | 2,609 | 2,456 | — | E. H. Lamb, L. |
| St. Helens | 13,068 | — | 6,016 | 5,752 | Rigby Swift, U. |
| Salford—North | 9,850 | 4,402 | 4,163 | — | Sir W. P. Byles, L. |
| West | 15,083 | 6,633 | 5,802 | — | Sir G. W. Agnew, Bt., L. |
| South | 8,344 | 3,439 | 3,666 | — | C. A. M. Barlow, U. |
| Salisbury | 3,386 | 1,413 | 1,750 | — | G. Locker-Lampson, U. |
| Scarborough | 6,166 | 2,763 | 2,711 | — | W. Russell Rea, L. |
| Sheffield—Attercliffe | 16,483 | — | 5,354 | 6,532 | J. Pointer, Lab. |
| | | | W.M.U. | — | J. Tudor Walters, L. |
| Brightside | 12,564 | 5,766 | 3,902 | — | J. F. Hope, U. |
| Central | 8,684 | — | 3,455 | 3,271 | S. Roberts, U. |
| Ecclesall | 13,961 | 5,849 | 6,039 | — | Rt. Hon. C. B. Stuart-Wortley, U |
| Hallam | 13,527 | 5,593 | 5,788 | — | Sir Clement Hill, U. |
| Shrewsbury | 4,882 | — | 2,423 | 1,855 | Col. Ivor Phillips, L. |
| Southampton (2 members) | 20,205 | 8,495 | 7,551 | — | Hon. W. Dudley Ward, L. |
| | | 8,449 | 7,535 | — | Rt. Hon. Russell Rea, L. |
| South Shields | 18,320 | Unop. | — | — | R. W. Essex, L. |
| Stafford | 4,137 | 1,992 | 1,837 | — | John Wood, U. |
| Stalybridge | 7,860 | 3,414 | 3,807 | — | S. L. Hughes, L. |
| Stockport (2 members) | 13,002 | 6,169 | 5,234 | 6,094 | G. J. Wardle, Lab. |
| | | — | 5,183 | — | Jonathan Samuel, L. |
| Stockton-on-Tees | 11,532 | 5,510 | 4,840 | — | J. Ward, L. |
| Stoke-upon-Trent | 15,079 | 7,049 | 5,062 | — | T. H. Greenwood, L. |
| Sunderland (2 members) | 27,610 | 11,997 | 10,300 | 11,291 | F. Goldstone, Lab. |
| | | — | 10,132 | — | Hon. W. R. W. Peel, U. |
| Taunton | 3,814 | 1,573 | 1,808 | — | H. J. Craig, L. |
| Tynemouth and North Shields | 10,122 | 4,106 | 3,929 | — | Arthur H. Marshall, L. |
| Wakefield | 6,326 | 2,837 | 2,651 | — | R. A. Cooper, U. |
| Walsall | 14,713 | 6,385 | 7,174 | — | H. Smith, U. |
| Warrington | 10,814 | 4,916 | 5,162 | — | E. M. Pollock, K.C., U. |
| Warwick and Leamington | 6,642 | 2,596 | 3,321 | — | J. Norton Griffiths, U. |
| Wednesbury | 13,479 | 5,691 | 6,423 | — | Viscount Lewisham, U. |
| West Bromwich | 11,299 | 5,041 | 5,046 | — | Baron de Forest, L. |
| West Ham—North (By) | 16,504 | 6,807 | 5,776 | — | W. Thorne, Lab. |
| South | 26,682 | — | 4,820 | 9,508 | T. Richardson, Lab. |
| Whitchaven | 3,050 | — | 1,220 | 1,414 | R. J. Neville, U. |
| Wigan | 9,577 | — | 4,673 | 4,110 | Capt. Hon. G. Baring, U. |
| Winchester | 3,200 | 1,121 | 1,719 | — | J. F. Mason, U. |
| Windsor | 3,210 | 1,067 | 1,779 | — | G. R. Thorne, L. |
| Wolverhampton—East | 10,238 | 5,072 | 3,881 | — | Col. T. E. Hickman, U. |
| South | 10,253 | 4,440 | 4,784 | — | A. F. Bird, U. |
| West | 13,170 | 5,631 | 5,925 | — | E. A. Goulding, U. |
| Worcester | 8,701 | 3,172 | 4,193 | — | A. Fell, U. |
| Yarmouth, Great | 9,571 | 3,837 | 4,210 | — | Arnold Rowntree, L. |
| York (2 members) | 14,065 | Unop. | — | — | J. G. Butcher, K.C., U. |
| | | — | Unop. | — | |

III.—ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES (5 MEMBERS).

| Constituency | Electorate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | Member |
|--|-----------------|----------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|
| | | Lib. | Unop. | Lab. & other. | |
| Cambridge University (2 mems.) (By) | 7,145 | — | Unop. 2,308 | 1,954 In. U. | J. E. P. Rawlinson, K.C., U. Sir J. Larmor, U. |
| London | 6,070 | 1,857 | 2,579 | — | Sir P. Magnus, U. |
| Oxford (2 members) | 6,895 | — | Unop. | — | Sir W. Anson, Bart., U. Lord H. Cecil, U. |

IV.—WELSH COUNTIES (19 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|--------|-------|-------|--------|----------------------------|
| Anglesey | 10,341 | Unop. | — | — | Ellis Griffith, L. |
| Brecknockshire | 18,432 | 5,511 | 3,631 | — | Sidney Robinson, L. |
| Cardiganshire | 13,333 | Unop. | — | — | M. L. Vaughan Davies, L. |
| Carmarthenshire—East | 12,268 | 5,825 | 2,315 | 1,176 | Abel Thomas, K.C., L. |
| West | 9,433 | 5,076 | 2,033 | — | J. Hinds, L. |
| Carnarvon—N. or Arfon | 10,183 | Unop. | — | — | William Jones, L. |
| S. or Eiflon | 9,455 | Unop. | — | — | Ellis W. Davies, L. |
| Denbighshire—East | 11,911 | 6,449 | 3,186 | — | E. T. John, L. |
| West | 9,920 | Unop. | — | — | Sir J. H. Roberts, Bt., L. |
| Flintshire | 12,774 | Unop. | — | — | J. H. Lewis, L. |
| Glamorganshire—East | 23,979 | 9,088 | 5,603 | 4,675 | Clement Edwards, L. |
| Mid | 20,017 | 7,824 | 6,102 | — | Hugh Edwards, L. |
| South | 22,953 | — | 7,252 | 10,190 | W. Brace, Lab. |
| West or Gower | 14,712 | 4,527 | — | 5,480 | J. Williams, Lab. |
| Rhondda | 17,640 | — | 3,701 | 9,073 | W. Abraham, Lab. |
| Merionethshire | 9,365 | Unop. | — | — | H. Haydn Jones, L. |
| Montgomeryshire | 7,928 | Unop. | — | — | David Davies, L. |
| Pembrokeshire | 11,750 | 5,680 | 2,096 | — | Walter Roch, L. |
| Radnorshire | 5,971 | 2,224 | 2,182 | — | Sir F. Edwards, Bart., L. |

V.—WELSH BOROUGHES (11 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------------------------------|
| Cardiff District | 28,723 | 11,882 | 12,181 | — | Lord N. Crichton Stuart, U. |
| Carmarthen District | 6,772 | Unop. | — | — | W. Llewelyn Williams, L. |
| Carnarvon District | 5,717 | 3,112 | 1,904 | — | Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd George, L. |
| Denbigh District | 5,130 | 2,376 | 2,385 | — | Hon. W. Ormsby Gore, U. |
| Flint District | 4,060 | 2,098 | 1,589 | — | J. W. Summers, L. |
| Merthyr Tydvil (2 members) | 23,219 | 12,258 | 5,277 | 11,507 | Edgar Jones, L. |
| Montgomery District | 3,354 | 1,468 | 1,522 | — | J. Keir Hardie, Lab. |
| Pembroke and Haverfordwest | 7,338 | 3,357 | 2,792 | — | Col. E. Pryce Jones, U. |
| Swansea District | 12,983 | Unop. | — | — | Major Hon. Henry Guest, L. |
| Swansea Town | 12,935 | 6,503 | 4,257 | — | Sir D. Brynmor Jones, L. |
| | | | | — | Sir A. Mond, Bt., L. |

VI.—SCOTTISH COUNTIES (39 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------------------------------|
| Aberdeenshire—East | 12,635 | 6,152 | 3,772 | — | W. H. Cowan, L. |
| West | 10,848 | 5,415 | 3,232 | — | J. M. Henderson, L. |
| Argyllshire | 11,025 | 4,280 | 4,023 | — | J. S. Ainsworth, L. |
| Ayrshire—North | 16,453 | 7,236 | 6,932 | — | A. M. Anderson, K.C., L. |
| South | 18,272 | 8,715 | 6,835 | — | W. P. Beale, K.C., L. |
| Banffshire | 8,181 | Unop. | — | — | Captain W. Waring, L. |
| Berwickshire | 5,674 | 3,005 | 2,000 | — | H. J. Tennant, L. |
| Buteshire | 3,562 | 1,316 | 1,569 | — | H. Hope, U. |
| Caithness | 3,944 | 2,718 | 87 | — | R. L. Harmsworth, L. |
| Clackmannan and Kinross | 8,103 | Unop. | — | — | Rt. Hon. Eugene Wason, L. |
| Dumbartonshire | 18,399 | 8,579 | 7,267 | — | A. A. Allen, L. |
| Dumfriesshire | 9,651 | 4,708 | 4,146 | — | P. A. Molteno, L. |
| Edinburgh (Midlothian) | 17,141 | 8,837 | 5,680 | — | Rt. Hon. Master of Elibank, L. |
| Elgin and Nairn | 5,748 | Unop. | — | — | Sir A. Williamson, Bart., L. |
| Fife—East | 10,372 | 5,149 | 3,350 | — | Rt. Hon. H. H. Asquith, L. |
| West | 17,627 | 5,425 | — | 6,128 | W. Adamson, Lab. |
| Forfarshire | 13,175 | 6,449 | 4,397 | — | J. Falconer, L. |
| Haddingtonshire (By) | 8,184 | 3,652 | 3,184 | — | J. D. Hope, L. |
| Inverness-shire | 9,951 | Unop. | — | — | Sir J. A. Dewar, Bart., L. |
| Kincardineshire | 7,179 | Unop. | — | — | Captain Hon. A. C. Murray, L. |
| Kirkcudbrightshire | 5,878 | 2,817 | 2,625 | — | Major G. McMicking, L. |
| Lanarkshire—Mid | 17,803 | 6,033 | 5,702 | 3,847 | J. H. Whitehouse, L. |
| | | | | Lab. | |
| North-East (By) | 22,554 | 7,976 | 6,776 | 2,879 | J. D. Millar, L. |
| Govan | 17,095 | 8,409 | 6,369 | — | W. Hunter, K.C., L. |

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | Member |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------|------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | Lib. | Un. | Lab. & other. | |
| Lanarkshire—Partick | 23,300 | 10,535 | 10,190 | — | R. Balfour, L. |
| (con.) North-West | 20,274 | 9,315 | 8,486 | — | W. M. R. Pringle, L. |
| South | 10,618 | 5,160 | 3,903 | — | Sir W. Menzies, L. |
| Linlithgowshire | 11,810 | 5,835 | 3,765 | — | Rt. Hon. A. Ure, K.C., L. |
| Orkney and Shetland | 7,115 | Unop. | — | — | J. C. Wason, L. |
| Peebles and Selkirk | 4,032 | 1,965 | 1,764 | — | D. Maclean, L. |
| Perthshire—East | 7,902 | 3,658 | 2,826 | — | W. Young, L. |
| West | 8,547 | 3,637 | 4,027 | — | Marquis of Tullibardine, U. |
| Renfrewshire—East | 20,947 | 8,883 | 10,063 | — | Captain J. Gilmour, U. |
| West | 13,900 | 6,366 | 6,082 | — | Col. J. W. Greig, L. |
| Ross and Cromarty (By)..... | 8,259 | 3,717 | 1,253 | — | J. I. Macpherson, L. |
| Roxburghshire | 6,025 | 2,908 | 2,704 | — | Sir John Jardine, L. |
| Stirlingshire | 20,144 | 9,183 | 6,487 | — | Dr. W. A. Chapple, L. |
| Sutherland | 3,055 | 1,464 | 1,277 | — | A. C. Morton, L. |
| Wigtownshire | 5,683 | — | Unop. | — | Lord Dalrymple, U. |

VII.—SCOTTISH BOROUGHES (31 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------|-------|------------|-----------------------------------|
| Aberdeen—North | 10,331 | 4,282 | 2,546 | — | D. V. Pirie, L. |
| South | 13,496 | 5,862 | 3,997 | — | G. B. Esslemont, L. |
| Ayr Boroughs | 8,067 | 3,260 | 3,852 | — | G. Younger, U. |
| Dumfries District | 4,307 | 2,315 | 1,596 | — | J. W. Gulland, L. |
| Dundee (2 members) | 19,374 | 9,240 | 5,685 | 8,957 | Rt. Hon. Winston Churchill, L. |
| | | | 4,914 | — | A. Wilkie, Lab. |
| Edinburgh—Central | 7,005 | 3,771 | 1,947 | — | C. E. Price, L. |
| East | 12,544 | 6,436 | 3,782 | — | Sir J. P. Gibson, Bt., L. |
| South | 20,433 | 9,576 | 7,986 | — | C. H. Lyall, L. |
| West | 9,758 | 4,252 | 4,952 | — | J. A. Clyde, K.C., U. |
| Elgin District | 5,301 | Unop. | — | — | J. E. Sutherland, L. |
| Falkirk District | 12,889 | 6,276 | 4,245 | — | J. A. Murray Macdonald, L. |
| Glasgow—Blackfriars and Hutchesontown .. | 8,481 | — | 2,884 | 4,162 | G. N. Barnes, Lab. |
| Bridgeton | 10,144 | 4,759 | 3,816 | — | A. MacCallum Scott, L. |
| Camlachie | 9,661 | 3,453 | 3,479 | 1,539 | H. J. Mackinder, U. |
| | | | | Lab. 35 | |
| | | | | SuffT.R. | |
| Central | 14,768 | 5,907 | 6,888 | — | Rt. Hon. C. Scott Dickson, K.C.U. |
| College | 14,208 | 6,291 | 5,932 | — | Hugh Watt, L. |
| St. Rollox | 19,581 | 9,291 | 7,374 | — | Rt. Hon. McKinnon Wood, L. |
| Tradeston (By) | 9,609 | 3,869 | 2,783 | — | J. Dundas White, L. |
| Greenock | 7,853 | 4,338 | 2,913 | — | G. P. Collins, L. |
| Hawick Burghs | 6,030 | Unop. | — | — | Sir J. N. Barran, Bt., L. |
| Inverness District | 4,547 | 2,367 | 1,812 | — | J. A. Bryce, L. |
| Kilmarnock District (By)..... | 17,023 | 6,923 | 4,637 | 2,761 | W. G. C. Gladstone, L. |
| Kirkcaldy District | 8,425 | Unop. | — | — | Sir Henry Dalziel, L. |
| Leith District | 17,351 | 7,069 | 5,284 | — | Rt. Hon. C. Munro Ferguson, L. |
| Montrose District | 8,414 | 3,878 | 2,155 | — | R. V. Harcourt, L. |
| Paisley | 12,331 | 6,039 | 3,350 | — | J. McCallum, L. |
| Perth | 5,433 | 2,852 | 1,878 | — | A. F. Whyte, L. |
| St. Andrew's District | 3,206 | 1,626 | 1,675 | — | Major W. Anstruther Gray, U. |
| Stirling District | 8,375 | Unop. | — | — | A. A. W. H. Ponsonby, L. |
| Wick District | 3,018 | 1,515 | 1,304 | — | R. Munro, K.C., L. |

VIII.—SCOTTISH UNIVERSITIES (2 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | |
|---|--------|---|-------|---|----------------------------|
| Edinburgh and St. Andrews Universities | 11,319 | — | Unop. | — | Sir R. B. Finlay, K.C., U. |
| Glasgow and Aberdeen Universities | 11,705 | — | Unop. | — | Sir Henry Craik, U. |

IX.—IRISH COUNTIES (85 MEMBERS).

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | Member |
|---------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------|---------------------|------------------------------|
| | | Nat. | Un. | Ind. N. & other. | |
| Antrim—East | 8,959 | — | Unop. | — | Col. J. M. McCalmont, U. |
| Mid | 7,219 | — | Unop. | — | Hon. A. E. B. O'Neill, U. |
| North | 7,516 | — | 3,557 | 2,974 L. | P. Kerr-Smiley, U. |
| South | 9,900 | — | Unop. | — | C. C. Craig, U. |
| Armagh—Mid | 7,072 | — | Unop. | — | J. B. Lonsdale, U. |
| North | 7,581 | — | Unop. | — | W. Moore, U. |
| South | 6,810 | 2,890 | — | 1,003 | Dr. C. O'Neill, N. |
| Carlow | 5,905 | Unop. | — | — | M. Molloy, N. |
| Cavan—East | 8,981 | Unop. | — | — | S. Young, N. |
| West | 8,605 | Unop. | — | — | V. P. Kennedy, N. |
| Clare—East | 8,709 | Unop. | — | — | W. Redmond, N. |
| West | 8,834 | Unop. | — | — | A. Lynch, N. |
| Cork—East (By) | 6,316 | Unop. | — | — | J. Muldoon, N. |
| North | 6,655 | — | — | Unop. | P. Guiney, I.N. |
| Mid | 6,599 | 2,115 | — | 2,738 | D. H. Sheehan, I.N. |
| North-East (By) | 6,634 | — | — | Unop. | T.M. Healy, I.N. |
| South | 6,199 | 2,184 | — | 2,346 | J. Walsh, I.N. |
| South-East | 6,734 | 1,872 | — | 2,408 | E. Crean, I.N. |
| West | 5,727 | 1,965 | — | 2,218 | J. Gilhooly, I.N. |
| Donegal—East | 6,454 | Unop. | — | — | E. Kelly, N. |
| North | 6,650 | Unop. | — | — | P. O'Doherty, N. |
| South | 6,091 | Unop. | — | — | J. G. Swift McNeill, K.C. N. |
| West | 6,642 | Unop. | — | — | H. A. Law, N. |
| Down—East | 7,895 | — | 4,110 | 2,412 L. | Captain J. Craig, U. |
| North | 9,912 | — | Unop. | — | W. Mitchell Thompson, U. |
| South | 7,753 | 3,668 | 3,040 | — | J. MacVeagh, N. |
| West | 8,253 | — | Unop. | — | W. J. McCaw, U. |
| Dublin County—North | 13,044 | Unop. | — | — | W. J. Clancy, N. |
| South | 12,009 | 5,223 | 5,090 | — | W. F. Cotton, N. |
| Fermanagh—North | 4,895 | — | — | 2,402 | G. Featherstonhaugh, K.C. U. |
| South | 5,317 | Unop. | — | — | P. Crumley, N. |
| Galway—East | 7,242 | Unop. | — | — | J. Roche, N. |
| North | 7,713 | Unop. | — | — | R. Hazleton, N. |
| South | 6,292 | Unop. | — | — | W. J. Duffey, N. |
| Connemara | 6,248 | Unop. | — | — | W. O'Malley, N. |
| Kerry—East | 5,766 | 2,561 | — | 1,308 | T. O'Sullivan, N. |
| North | 5,536 | Unop. | — | — | M. J. Flavin, N. |
| South | 5,858 | 2,395 | — | 451 | J. P. Boland, N. |
| West | 5,848 | Unop. | — | — | T. O'Donnell, N. |
| Kildare—North | 4,711 | Unop. | — | — | John O'Connor, N. |
| South | 4,958 | Unop. | — | — | D. Kilbride, N. |
| Kilkenny—North | 4,847 | Unop. | — | — | M. Meagher, N. |
| South | 4,985 | 2,265 | — | 287 | M. Keating, N. |
| King's County—Birr | 4,410 | 2,123 | — | 624 | M. Reddy, N. |
| Tullamore | 4,472 | Unop. | — | — | E. H. Burke, N. |
| Leitrim—North | 6,282 | Unop. | — | — | F. E. Meehan, N. |
| South | 5,727 | Unop. | — | — | T. F. Smyth, N. |
| Limerick Co.—East | 7,455 | 3,715 | — | 1,381 | T. London, N. |
| West | 7,550 | 3,052 | — | 1,285 | P. J. O'Shaughnessy, N. |
| Londonderry—North | 9,349 | — | 4,960 | 2,217 L. | H. T. Barrie, U. |
| South | 8,052 | — | 3,845 | 3,512 L. | J. Gordon, K.C. U. |
| Longford—North | 3,632 | Unop. | — | — | J. P. Farrell, N. |
| South | 3,691 | Unop. | — | — | J. Phillips, N. |
| Louth—North (By) | 5,868 | 2,509 | — | 2,021 | A. Roche, N. |
| South | 4,802 | Unop. | — | — | J. Nolan, N. |
| Mayo—East | 7,816 | Unop. | — | — | J. Dillon, N. |
| North | 5,868 | Unop. | — | — | D. Boyle, N. |
| South | 7,883 | Unop. | — | — | J. Fitzgibbon, N. |
| West | 8,261 | 3,931 | — | 1,082 | W. Doris, N. |
| Meath—North | 5,622 | Unop. | — | — | P. White, N. |
| South | 5,584 | Unop. | — | — | D. Sheehy, N. |
| Monaghan—North | 6,435 | 3,365 | 1,937 | — | J. C. R. Lardner, N. |
| South | 6,449 | Unop. | — | — | J. McKean, I.N. |
| Queen's County—Leix | 4,872 | Unop. | — | — | P. A. Meehan, N. |
| Ossory | 4,786 | Unop. | — | — | W. Delany, N. |
| Rosecommon—North | 8,528 | Unop. | — | — | J. O'Kelly, N. |
| South | 8,362 | Unop. | — | — | J. P. Hayden, N. |
| Sligo—North | 7,993 | Unop. | — | — | T. Scanlan, N. |
| South | 7,096 | Unop. | — | — | J. O'Dowd, N. |

| Constituency | Electo- rate 1910 | Votes Polled in 1910 | | | | Member |
|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------|---------------------|---|----------------------------|
| | | Nat. | Un. | Ind. N. & other. | | |
| Tipperary—East | 5,610 | Unop. | — | — | — | T. J. Condon, N. |
| Mid | 6,105 | 2,440 | — | 1,716 | — | J. Haekett, N. |
| North | 5,421 | Unop. | — | — | — | Dr. J. Esmonde, N. |
| South | 4,917 | Unop. | — | — | — | J. Cullinan, N. |
| Tyrone—East | 6,526 | 3,108 | 2,968 | — | — | W. A. Redmond, N. |
| Mid | 6,512 | 3,102 | 2,379 | — | — | R. Macghee, N. |
| North | 6,572 | — | 3,038 | 3,170 L. | — | Redmond Barry, K.C., L. |
| South | 6,059 | — | 2,962 | 2,662 L. | — | A. L. Horner, K.C., U. |
| Waterford—East | 4,216 | Unop. | — | — | — | P. J. Power, N. |
| West | 4,139 | 2,402 | — | 727 | — | J. J. O'Shee, N. |
| Westmeath—North | 5,245 | — | — | Unop. | — | L. Ginnell, I.N. |
| South | 6,755 | Unop. | — | — | — | Sir W. Nugent, Bt., N. |
| Wexford—North | 8,835 | Unop. | — | — | — | Sir T. Esmonde, Bt., N. |
| South | 8,557 | 3,578 | — | 1,164 | — | P. French, N. |
| Wicklow—East (By) | 4,875 | Unop. | — | — | — | Capt. A. J. C. Donelan, N. |
| West | 4,417 | Unop. | — | — | — | E. P. O'Kelly, N. |

X.—IRISH BOROUGHES (16 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------|-------|-------|--------|---|-------------------------|
| Belfast—East | 16,330 | — | Unop. | — | — | R. J. McMordie, U. |
| North | 11,829 | — | Unop. | — | — | R. Thompson, U. |
| South | 10,822 | — | 5,585 | 2,722 | — | J. Chambers, K.C., U. |
| West | 9,230 | 4,543 | 4,080 | — | — | J. Devlin, N. |
| Cork City (2 members) | 13,797 | 4,746 | — | 5,384 | — | W. O'Brien, Ind. N. |
| | | 4,743 | — | 5,269 | — | Maurice Healy, Ind. N. |
| Dublin—College Green | 8,739 | Unop. | — | — | — | J. P. Nannetti, N. |
| Harbour | 9,038 | 3,244 | — | 631 | — | W. Abraham, N. |
| St. Stephen's Green .. | 7,909 | 3,594 | 2,765 | — | — | P. J. Brady, N. |
| St. Patrick's | 8,882 | Unop. | — | — | — | W. Field, N. |
| Galway City | 2,306 | 1,062 | — | 203 | — | S. L. Gwynn, N. |
| | | | | F.H.R. | | |
| Kilkenny City | 1,742 | Unop. | — | — | — | P. O'Brien, N. |
| Limerick City | 4,686 | 2,452 | — | 682 | — | M. Joyce, N. |
| Londonderry City | 5,068 | 2,310 | 2,415 | — | — | Marquis of Hamilton, U. |
| Newry | 2,021 | Unop. | — | — | — | J. J. Mooney, N. |
| Waterford City | 3,104 | Unop. | — | — | — | J. E. Redmond, N. |

XI.—IRISH UNIVERSITY (2 MEMBERS).

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|---|-------|---|-----------------------------------|
| Trinity College, Dublin (2 mems.) | 5,020 | — | Unop. | — | Rt. Hon. Sir E. Carson, K.C., U. |
| | | | | | Rt. Hon. J. H. Campbell, K.C., U. |

THE ELECTORS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

General Summary for 1911.

| | ELECTORS FOR COUNTIES. | | | | ELECTORS FOR BOROUGHES. | | | | Univer- sity Electors |
|-------------------------|------------------------|------------|----------|-----------|-------------------------|----------|---|------------|-----------------------------|
| | Owners. | Occupiers. | Lodgers. | TOTAL. | Occupiers. | Lodgers. | Free- men, Free- holders, &c. | TOTAL. | |
| England and Wales .. | 558,859 | 3,062,651 | 129,529 | 3,751,039 | 2,444,483 | 168,708 | 23,239 | 2,636,430 | 20,173 |
| Scotland | 64,261 | 370,703 | 28,026 | 462,990 | 256,564 | 29,264 | 30,194 | 316,022 | 21,436 |
| Ireland | 8,663 | 555,301 | 4,134 | 568,098 | 115,016 | 5,730 | 2,470 | 123,216 | 5,061 |
| Grand Total | 631,783 | 3,988,655 | 161,689 | 4,782,127 | 2,816,063 | 203,702 | 55,903 | 3,075,668 | 49,670 |
| TOTAL FOR 1911 | | | | | | | | | |
| England and Wales | | 6,407,642 | | | England and Wales | | | 6,221,607* | |
| Scotland | | 800,448 | | | Scotland | | | 785,208 | |
| Ireland | | 696,375 | | | Ireland | | | 698,787 | |
| Grand Total | | 7,904,465 | | | Grand Total | | | 7,705,602* | |

* Revised figures.

NOTE.—The Home Secretary has given the revised total for 1911 as 7,904,524, but has not stated how the difference is apportioned.

BY-ELECTIONS OF 1911.

- CARNARVON (North)** (10,153). Feb. 11.—On the appointment of Mr. William Jones to be a Lord Commissioner of the Treasury. William Jones (L) returned unopposed. No change. 1910 (Dec.) Jones (L) unop.
- CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY** (7,140). Feb. 16.—On the death of Mr. S. H. Butcher. Sir Joseph Larmor (U) 2,308
Harold Cox (IU) 1,954—354
T. E. Page (IU) 332
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Butcher (U), Rawlinson (U) returned unop.
- LINCS. (Horncastle)** (10,804). Feb. 16.—On Lord Willoughby de Eresby's succession to the Peerage.
Capt. A. G. Weigall (U) 4,955
F. C. Linfield (U) 4,848—107
No change. 1910 (Dec.) De Eresby (U) 4,705, Linfield (L) 4,181.
- WILTS. (Westbury)** (10,612). Feb. 22.—On the appointment of Sir John Fuller as Governor of Victoria.
Hon. Geoffrey Howard (L) .. 5,073
G. L. Palmer (U) 4,492—581
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Fuller (U) 5,041, Palmer (U) 4,152
- GLOS. (Forest of Dean)** (11,214) Feb. 24.—On the death of Sir Charles Dilke.
Harry Webb (L) 6,174
D. H. Kyd (U) 3,106—3,068
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Dilke (L) 5,544, Kyd (U) 2,820.
- LANARKSHIRE (North East)** (22,554). March 8.—On the resignation of Mr. T. F. Wilson (L).
J. D. Millar (L) 7,976
Park Goff (U) 6,776—1,200
J. Robertson (Lab) 2,879
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Wilson (L) 9,848, Carpenter (U) 7,142.
- NORTH LOUTH** (5,745). March 15.—On the unseating on petition of Mr. Hazleton (N)
A. Roche (N) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Hazleton (N) 2,509, Healy (IN) 2,021.
- MIDDLESEX (Brentford)** (21,462). March 23.—On the resignation of Lord A. Compton.
W. Joynson-Hicks (U) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Compton (U) 9,199, Lobjoit (L) 6,124.
- LANCS. (Bootle)** (25,470). March 27.—On the resignation of Col. T. M. Sandys (U).
Rt. Hon. A. Bonar Law (U) 9,976
Max Muspratt (L) 7,782—2,194
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Sandys (U) unop.
- EXETER (Election Petition)** (10,383). April 11.—Seat awarded on scrutiny to Mr. H. E. Duke, K.C. (U).
Corrected figures:—
H. E. Duke, K.C. (U) 4,777
H. St. Maur (L) 4,776—1
Figures at General Election—St. Maur (L) 4,786, Duke (U) 4,782.
- HADDINGTONSHIRE** (8,184). April 19.—On the elevation to the Peerage of Mr. Haldane (L).
J. D. Hope (L) 3,652
D. Hall Blyth (U) 3,184—468
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Haldane (L) 3,845, Blyth (U) 3,158.
- CHELTEMHAM** (8,712). April 28.—On the unseating on petition of Mr. R. Mathias (L).
J. T. Agg-Gardner (U) 4,043
Major L Mathias (L) 4,039—4
Conservative gain. 1910 (Dec.) Mathias (L) 3,846, Duncannon (U) 3,753.
- EAST DORSET** (15,335). April 29.—On the acceptance of office by Capt. Hon. F. Guest.
Capt. the Hon. F. Guest (L) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Guest (L) 6,819, Glyn (U) 6,266.
- SOUTH BIRMINGHAM** (10,899). May 3.—On the succession to the peerage of Viscount Morpeth (U).
L. S. Amery (U) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Morpeth (U) 4,701, Butler (L) 1,923
- DEVON (Barnstaple)** (13,595). May 6.—On the acceptance of Civil Service appointment by Sir E. J. Soares (L).
Sir Godfrey Baring (L) 6,239
C. S. Parker (U) 5,771—468
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Soares (L) 6,047, Parker (U) 5,155.
- ROSS AND CROMARTY** (8,259). June 14.—On the death of Mr. J. Galloway Weir.
J. I. Macpherson (L) 3,717
W. P. Templeton (U) 1,253—2,464
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Weir (L) unop.
- BRIGHTON** (21,996). June 26.—On the succession to the Peerage of Hon. W. F. Rice (U).
J. E. Gordon (U) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Tryon (U) 10,780, Rice (U) 10,757, Morris (L) 6,723, Nickalls (L) 6,699.
- HULL (Central)** (8,712). July 5.—On the unseating on petition of Sir H. Seymour King (U).
Mark Sykes (U) 3,823
Sir Robert Aske (L) 3,545—278
No change. 1910 (Dec.) King (U) 3,625, Aske (L) 3,418.
- GLASGOW (Tradeston)** (9,609). July 6.—On acceptance of a Peerage by Mr. Cameron Corbett (L).
J. Dundas White (L) 3,869
J. H. Watts (U) 2,783—1,086
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Corbett (L) 4,811, Main (L) 3,137.
- KENT (St. Augustine's)** (17,177). July 7.—On the acceptance of a Peerage by Mr. Akers-Douglas (U).
Ronald McNeill (U) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Akers-Douglas (U) unop.
- NORTH WEST HAM** (16,504). July 8.—On the unseating on petition of Mr. C. F. G. Masterman (L).
Baron de Forest (L) 6,807
E. E. Wild (U) 5,776—1,031
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Masterman (L) 6,657, Wild (U) 5,760.
- EAST WICKLOW** (4,875). July 13.—On the retirement of Mr. Muldoon (N).
Capt. Donelan (N) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Muldoon (N) 2,384, Howard (U) 1,275.
- EAST CORK** (6,643). July 15.—On unseating on petition of Capt. Donelan (N).
J. Muldoon (N) returned unopposed.
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Donelan (N) 3,173, O'Brien (IN) 1,843.

NORTH-EAST CORK (6,070). July 15.—On the resignation of Mr. Moreton Frewen (IN). T. M. Healy (IN) returned unopposed. No change. 1910 (Dec.) Frewen (IN) unop.

BEDFORDSHIRE (Luton) (17,177). July 20.—On the elevation to the Peerage of Mr. T. Gair Ashton (L).

Cecil B. Harmsworth (L).... 7,619
J. O. Hickman (U) 7,006—618
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Ashton (L) 7,601,
Hickman (U) 6,623.

WEST SOMERSET (10,696). July 21.—On the elevation to the Peerage of Sir Alexander Acland-Hood (U).

Col. D. F. Boles (U) 5,025
C. H. Dudley Ward (L) 4,421—604
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Acland-Hood (U) unop.

SOUTH WEST BETHNAL GREEN (7,083). July 29.—On the appointment as a London Magistrate of the late Mr. E. H. Pickersgill (L).

C. F. G. Masterman (L) 2,745
Eric Hoffgaard (U) 2,561—184
John Scurr (Soc.) 134
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Pickersgill (L) 2,768,
Hoffgaard (U) 2,086.

Other by-elections at Oldham (consequent Hitchin (due to the death of Dr. A. P. Hillier), and South Somerset (due to Sir E. Strachey's acceptance of a peerage), were pending at the

LANCS. (Middleton) (15,447). August 2.—On the acceptance of a Recordership by Sir Ryland Adkins (L).

Sir Ryland Adkins (L) 6,863
W. A. S. Hewins (U) 3,452—411
No change. 1910 (Dec.) Adkins (L) 7,071,
Hewins (U) 6,281.

KILMARNOCK BURGHS. (17,023). Sept. 26.—On the death of Dr. A. R. Rainy.

W. G. C. Gladstone (L) 6,923
Sir J. D. Rees (U) 4,837
T. McKerrrell (Lab) 2,761

Lib. maj. over U. 2,236. No change. 1910 (Dec.) A. R. Rainy (L) 8,657, J. B. Black (U) 5,569.

NORTH TYRONE (6,551). Oct. 6.—On Mr. Redmond Barry's promotion.

T. W. Russell (L) 3,104
E. C. Herdman (U) 3,086—18
No change. 1910 (Dec.) R. Barry, K.C. (L) 3,170, Lord J. Hamilton (U) 3,038.

YORKSHIRE (Keighley) Oct. 27.—On the death of Sir John Brigg (L).

S. O. Buckmaster (L) 4,667
W. Acworth (U) 3,842
W. C. Anderson (Lab) 3,452

No change. 1910 (Dec.) Sir John Brigg returned unopposed.

On Mr. Emmott's acceptance of a peerage), and South Somerset (due to Sir E. Strachey's acceptance of a peerage), were pending at the time of going to press.

THE NATIONAL BILL FOR ELECTIONS.

£1,296,382. 9s. 10d.

The payment of election expenses still rests with the candidates. In the General Election of January, 1910, the total expenses of the candidates, including the returning officers' charges, were **£1,296,382. 9s. 10d.** This does not include the large sums spent by outside organisations in aid of candidates supporting particular programmes. The total number of votes polled was 6,667,394. That is to say, the cost of each vote averaged **3s. 11d.** In England and Wales the average was **3s. 10d.**; in Scotland, **4s. 5d.**; in Ireland, **2s. 11d.**

The expenditure that candidates may incur is determined by the number of electors on the register. Each candidate must pay his share of the returning officer's charges, and may spend **£100** in personal expenses. Over and above these items a candidate may spend in a constituency:—

| Electors. | Counties. | | Jointly | |
|-------------------------|-----------|--------|-------------|-------------|
| | British. | Irish. | Mem. Boros. | Mem. Boros. |
| Not exceeding 2,000 | £650 | £500 | £350 | £525 |
| Each additional 1,000.. | 60 | 40 | 30 | 45 |

The maximum allowed for expenses in a typical constituency of 7,900 electors is:—

| | |
|--|--------|
| British counties | £1,010 |
| One member boroughs | 530 |
| Two member boroughs (joint candidates) | 795 |

Where there are more than 14,999 electors £30 per 1,000 is allowed in a borough, and £60 per 1,000 electors in a county division. The Romford Division of Essex has 55,951 voters, and Walthamstow 42,029, so that expenditure allowed by law in the Romford

Division is well over £4,000. This includes the returning officer's expenses.

The maximum of election expenses might well now be reduced, owing to improved means of locomotion. It has been suggested that letting, hiring, or borrowing conveyances to take voters to the poll should be illegal, except that voters should still be able to hire for themselves public conveyances, in which they could ride to the poll at their own expense. This suggestion was embodied in an Adult Suffrage Bill promoted by Mr. Arthur Henderson in 1911, and Sir C. Henry brought forward a short Bill, limited to the prohibition of the use of motor-cars for the purpose.

Again, when the expenditure of parliamentary candidates was regulated by the Corrupt Practices Act of 1883, each circular sent out cost a penny in postage. The half-penny post was introduced in 1884, but the maximum permitted expenditure remained the same. No doubt circularising the voters and house-to-house canvassing will eventually be prohibited.

The payments made by candidates in England and Wales in January, 1910, were distributed as follows:—

| | | | |
|------------------|----------|---------------|----------|
| Agents | £155,419 | Committee | |
| Clerks and | | Rooms | £49,037 |
| Messengers | 128,679 | Miscellaneous | 80,172 |
| Printing, Advt., | | Personal Ex- | |
| Postage, &c. | 417,366 | penses | 55,742 |
| Public Meetings | 37,644 | Total | £921,109 |

By far the heaviest item is the expenditure on posters, circulars, &c., the compulsory limitation of which is the most obvious step to the reduction of the present huge bill.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

LIST OF THE MEMBERS

IN THE FIRST SESSION OF THE THIRTIETH PARLIAMENT OF THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE SECOND OF KING GEORGE V.

SPEAKER—Rt. Hon. James William Lowther, *Speaker's House*, Westminster, S.W.

DEPUTY SPEAKER and CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEES—Rt. Hon. J. H. Whitley, 61, Burton Ct., Chelsea.

DEPUTY CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEES—Donald Maclean, 42, Seymour Street, S.W.

LIBERALS (270 Seats—two vacant).

An asterisk signifies that the member sat for the same Constituency in the last Parliament; an arrow that he sat in the 1910 Parliament, but for another Constituency.

| Member. | Date of Birth | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|----------------------------------|---------------|--|--|
| Acland, Francis Dyke..... | 1874 | Cornwall (Camborne) | Parl. Under. Sec. for Foreign Affairs |
| *Addison, Christopher, M.D. | 1869 | Shoreditch (Hoxton) | Prof. of anatomy; ed. Qy. Med. Jnl. |
| *Adkins, Sir W. Ryland Dent | 1882 | Lancs. (Middleton) .. | Recorder of Nottingham |
| *Agar-Robartes, Hon. T. C. R. | 1880 | Cornwall (St. Austell) | e.s. Viscount Clifden |
| *Agnew, Sir George Wm., Bt. | 1852 | Salford, W. | Art dealer (ret.) |
| *Ainsworth, John Stirling .. | 1844 | Argyllshire | Mine owner; railway chairman |
| *Alden, Percy | 1865 | Middlesex (Tottenham) | Journalist and author |
| Allen, Arthur Acland | 1868 | Dumbartonshire | Newspaper proprietor (Manchester Gdn.) |
| *Allen, Charles Peter | 1861 | Glos. (Stroud) | Barr.; News. propr.; Charity Commr. |
| *Anderson, Andrew M., K.C. | 1862 | Ayrshire, N. | Barrister; author |
| *Armitage, Robert | 1866 | Leeds (Central) | Barr.; ironmaster (Brown, Bayley) |
| *Asquith, Rt. Hn. H. H., K.C. | 1852 | Fifeshire, E. | Prime Minister |
| *Atherley-Jones, Llcw., K.C. | 1851 | Durham, N.W. | Recorder of Newcastle |
| *Baker, Harold Trevor | 1877 | Lanes. (Accrington) .. | Barr.; priv. sec. to Ld. Haldane |
| *Baker, Joseph Allen | 1852 | Finsbury, E. | Engineer (Chm., J. Baker & Sons) |
| *Balfour, Sir Robert, Bt. | 1844 | Lanark (Partick) | Shipowner; merchant |
| Baring, Sir Godfrey | 1871 | Devon (Barnstaple) .. | Landowner |
| *Barlow, Sir J. Emmott, Bt. | 1857 | Somerset (Frome) | Barrister; foreign merchant |
| *Barran, Rowland Hirst | 1858 | Leeds (North) | Merchant (J. Barran & Sons, Ltd.) |
| *Barran, Sir Jn. Nicholson, Bt. | 1872 | Hawick Burghs. | Merchant (parly. priv. sec. to Mr. H. Samuel) |
| *Barton, William | 1862 | Oldham. | Calico printer |
| *Beale, Wm. Phipson, K.C. | 1839 | Ayrshire (S.) | Barrister, Referee of private bills |
| Bauchamp, Sir Edward, Bt. | 1849 | Suffolk (Lowestoft) | Underwriter, member of Lloyds |
| Beek, Arthur Cecil Tyrrell .. | 1876 | Essex (Saffron Walden) | Barr.; parly. priv. sec. to Mr. H. J. Tennant |
| *Benn, Wm. Wedgwood. | 1877 | Tower Hamlets (St. George's-in-the-East) | News. propr.; Ld. of the Treasury |
| *Bentham, Geo. Jackson. | 1863 | Lincs. (Gainsboro') .. | Merehant |
| *Bethell, Sir John H., Bt. | 1861 | Essex (Romford) .. | Surveyor (ret.) |
| *Birrell, Rt. Hon. Aug., K.C. | 1850 | Bristol, N. | Chief Sec. for Ireland |
| *Black, Arthur William | 1863 | Beds. (Biggleswade) | Lace manufacturer |
| Booth, Frederick Handel | 1867 | Pontefract | Colliery owner, |
| *Bottomley, Horatio Wm. | 1860 | Hackney, S. | Journalist and news. propr.; director |
| *Brookdehurst, Col. W. B. | 1851 | Ches. (Macclesfield) | Silk manufacturer |
| *Brunner, John Fowler Leese | 1865 | Ches. (Northwich) .. | Alkali manufacturer |
| *Bryce, John Annan | 1841 | Inverness Burghs. | East India merchant; banker |
| Buckmaster, Stanley Owen | 1861 | Keighley | K.C. |
| *Burns, Rt. Hon. John. | 1858 | Battersea | President Local Govt. Board |
| *Burt, Rt. Hon. Thomas | 1837 | Morpeth | Sec. Northumberland Miners' M.C. Assoc. |
| *Buxton, Noel Edward | 1869 | Norfolk, N. | Author; journalist |
| *Buxton, Rt. Hn. Sydney C. | 1853 | Tower H'ts (Poplar) | President Board of Trade |
| *Byles, Sir Wm. Pollard | 1839 | Salford, N. | Editor; news. propr. |
| *Cameron, Robert | 1825 | Durham (Houghton-le-Spring) | Ex-schoolmaster; journalist |
| *Carr-Gomm, Hubert W. C. | 1877 | Southwark (Rotherhithe) | Asst. priv. sec. to Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman, 1905-8. |
| *Cawley, Sir Frederick, Bt. | 1850 | Lancs. (Prestwich) .. | Bleacher and calico printer; land |
| *Cawley, Harold Thomas .. | 1878 | Lancs. (Heywood) .. | Barrister, parly. priv. sec. to Mr. Runciman. |
| *Chancellor, Henry George.. | 1863 | Shoreditch (Haggerston) | Paint manufacturer |
| *Chapple, Dr. Wm. Allan, M.D. | 1864 | Stirlingshire | Physician (not practising); author |
| *Churchill, Rt. Hn. Winston S. | 1874 | Dundee | First Lord of the Admiralty. |
| *Clough, W. | 1862 | Yorks. W.R. (Skipton) | Worsted manufacturer (ret.) |
| *Collins, Godfrey Pattison .. | 1875 | Greenock | Publisher, parly. priv. sec. to Col. Seely |
| *Collins, Stephen | 1847 | Lambeth (Kenning'n) | Stonemason and contractor |

| Member. | Date of Birth. | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|---------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|
|---------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|

| | | | |
|---|------|----------------------------|---|
| *Compton-Rickett, Rt. Hon. | 1847 | Yorks. W.R. | Director; author |
| (Osgoldcross) | | | |
| *Cornwall, Sir Edwin A. | 1863 | Bethnal Grn. N.E. | Coal merchant; chrm. L.C.C. 1905-6 |
| *Cory, Sir Clifford John, Bt. . . | 1859 | Cornwall (St. Ives) | Colliery owner; railway director |
| *Cowan, William Henry | 1862 | Aberdeenshire, E. . . | Gas meter manufacturer |
| *Craig, Herbert James | 1869 | Tynemouth | Shipbroker (Borries, Craig, & Co.) |
| *Crawshaw-Williams, Eliot . . | 1879 | Leicester | Author; partly. priv. sec. to Mr. Lloyd George |
| *Dalziel, Sir Henry | 1868 | Kirkcaldy Burghs.. | Newspaper proprietor; journalist |
| *Davies, David | 1880 | Montgomeryshire . . | Landowner; railway director |
| *Davies, Ellis William | 1871 | Carnarvonshire, S. . . | Solicitor |
| *Davies, Sir Wm. Howell | 1851 | Bristol, S. | Tanner and leather merchant |
| Davies, Timothy | 1857 | Lincs. (Louth) | Draper |
| *Dawes, James Arthur | 1866 | Newington (Walwh.) | Solicitor |
| De Forest, Baron | 1879 | West Ham, N. | Baron of the Austrian Empire |
| *Denman, Hon. Richard D. . . | 1876 | Carlisle | Director; partly. priv. sec. to Mr. S. Buxton |
| *Dewar, Sir John A., Bt. . . . | 1856 | Inverness-shire . . . | Distiller (J. Dewar & Sons) |
| *Dickinson, Willoughby Hyett . | 1850 | St. Pancras, N. . . . | Barrister; chrm. L.C.C. 1900 |
| Duncan, James Hastings . . . | 1855 | Yorks W.R. (Otley) | Worsted spinner (W. Ackroyd & Co.) |
| Edwards, Allen Clement | 1869 | Glamorgan, E. . . . | Barrister; author |
| Edwards, John Hugh | 1871 | Glamorgan, Mid. . . . | Barrister; ed. of "Young Wales" |
| Edwards, Sir Francis, Bt. . . . | 1852 | Radnorshire | Colliery owner; solicitor |
| *Ellibank, Rt. Hon. Master of . | 1870 | Midlothian | Parly. Sec. to Treasury |
| *Elverston, Sir Harold | 1866 | Gateshead | Newspaper proprietor |
| Essex, Richard Walter | 1857 | Stafford | Wall-paper manufacturer |
| *Esslemont, George Birnie . . . | 1860 | Aberdeen, S. | Manufacturer and draper |
| *Falconer, James | 1856 | Forfarshire | Writer to the Signet |
| *Fenwick, Rt. Hon. Charles . . | 1850 | N'land (Wansbeck) | Ex-miner; temp. chrm. of Comm. |
| *Ferens, Thomas Robinson . . . | 1847 | Hull, E. | Director (Reckitt & Sons, Ltd.) |
| Fiennes, Hon. Eustace | 1864 | Oxon. (Banbury) . . | Army (ret.); Stock Exchange |
| *France, Gerald Ashburner . . | 1870 | Yorks.W.R. (Morley) | Importer and agent |
| *Furness, Stephen Wilson . . . | 1872 | Hartlepool | Shipowner and shipbuilder |
| *Gelder, Sir Wm. Alfred | 1855 | Lincs. (Brigg) | Architect |
| *George, Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd . . | 1863 | Carnarvon District | Solicitor; Chancellor of Exchequer |
| *Gibson, Sir James P., Bt. . . . | 1849 | Edinburgh, E. | Provision merchant |
| Gladstone, Wm. Glynn Chas. . | 1885 | Kilmarnock Burghs | Dipl. ser.; Ld.-Licut. Flintshire |
| Glanville, Harold James | 1854 | South'k (Berm'sey) | Mill furnisher (J. Abbott & Co.) |
| Glyn-Jones, William Samuel . . | 1860 | Tower H. (Stepney) | Barr.; partly. sec. Pharm. Soc. |
| *Goddard, Sir Daniel Ford . . . | 1850 | Ipswich | Civil engineer |
| Greenwood, Granville Geo. . . . | 1850 | Peterborough | Barrister |
| Greenwood, Hamar | 1870 | Sunderland | Barrister |
| *Greig, Col. Jas. William . . . | 1859 | Renfrewshire, W. . . | Barrister; author |
| *Grey, Rt. Hon. Sir Ed. Bt. . . | 1862 | Nth'land (Berwick) | Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. |
| *Griffith, Ellis Jones | 1860 | Anglesey | Barr.; Recorder of Birkenhead |
| *Guest, Capt. the Hon. F. E. . . | 1875 | Dorset, E. | Army; partly. priv. sec. to Mr. Winston Churchill |
| *Guest, Major the Hon. | 1874 | Pembroke and Haverfordwest | Army; partly. priv. sec. to Mr. Hobhouse |
| C. H. C. | | | |
| *Gulland, John Wm. | 1864 | Dumfries Burghs . . | Corn merchant; Jnr. Ld. of Treasury |
| *Harcourt, Rt. Hon. Lewis . . . | 1863 | Lancs. N.E. | Landowner; Colonial Secretary |
| (Rossendale) | | | |
| *Harcourt, Robert Vernon . . | 1878 | Montrose Burghs . . | Author; ex.-dipl. service |
| Harmsworth, Cecil Bishopp . . | 1869 | Beds. (Luton) | Author |
| *Harmsworth, Robt. Leicester . | 1870 | Caithness | News. propr. (Amalgamated Press) |
| *Harvey, Alexander G. C. . . . | 1858 | Rochdale | Cotton manufacturer and merchant |
| Harvey, Thomas Edmund | 1875 | Leeds, W. | Author; late Warden Toynbee Hall |
| Harwood, George | 1845 | Bolton | Cotton spinner (R. Harwood & Sons) |
| *Haslam, Lewis | 1856 | Monmouth Burghs | Director of cotton spinning cos. |
| *Havelock-Allan, Sir H. S., Bt. | 1872 | Durham (Bis.Auck.) | Army; partly. priv. sec. to Mr. E. S. Montagu |
| *Haworth, Sir Arthur A. . . . | 1865 | Manchester, S. . . . | Cotton merchant |
| *Hayward, Evan | 1876 | Durham, S.E. | Solicitor |
| *Helme, Norval Watson | 1849 | Lancs. N.(Lan'ster) | Oil-baize and leather-cloth manuf. |
| *Henderson, J. Macdonald . . . | 1846 | Aberdeenshire, W. . . | Barrister; director tramy. and rly. cos. |
| *Henry, Sir Chas. Solomon, Bt. . | 1860 | Salop (Wellington) | Metal merchant |
| *Herbert, Maj.-Gen. Sir Ivor, Bt., C.B., C.M.G. | 1851 | Monmouthshire . . | Army (ret.); A.A.G. S. African war |
| *Higham, John Sharp | 1857 | Yorks.W.R.(Sow'by) | Cotton spinner (Highams, Ltd.) |
| Hinds, John | 1862 | Cardmarthen, W. . . | Draper |
| *Hobhouse, Rt. Hon. C. E. H. . . | 1862 | Bristol, E. | Chanc. of the Duchy of Lancaster. |
| *Holt, Richard Durning | 1868 | Nth'land (Hexham) | Shipowner |
| †Hope, John Deans | 1860 | Haddingtonshire . . | Chartered accountant; stockbroker |
| *Horne, Rev. C. Silvester | 1865 | Ipswich | Congregational minister |
| †Howard, Hon. Geoffry | 1877 | Wilts.(Westbury) . . | Vice-Chamberlain of the Household |

| Member | Date of Birth | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|---|---------------|---------------------------|--|
| * Hughes, Spencer Leigh | 1858 | Stockport | Journalist |
| * Hunter, William, K.C. | 1864 | Lanark (Govan) | Solicitor-General for Scotland |
| * Illingworth, Percy Holden, K.C.V.O., K.C. | 1869 | Yorks. W.R. (Shipley) | Barrister; Jnr. Ld. of the Treasury |
| * Isaacs, Rt. Hon. Sir Rufus D. | 1860 | Reading | Barrister; Attorney-General |
| * Jardine, Sir John, K.C.I.E. | 1844 | Roxburghshire | Ind. civ. ser. (ret.); author |
| John, Edward Thomas | 1857 | Denbighshire | Ironmaster |
| * Jones, Edgar Rees | 1878 | Merthyr Tydvil | Lecturer |
| * Jones, Henry Haydn | 1863 | Merioneth | Ironmonger and farmer |
| * Jones, Leifchild Stratten | 1862 | Notts. (Rushcliffe) | Underwriter |
| * Jones, Sir D. Brynmor, K.C. | 1852 | Swansea District | Recorder of Merthyr Tydvil |
| * Jones, William | 1860 | Carnarvonshire, N. | Junior Lord of the Treasury |
| * Kellaway, Frederick George | 1870 | Bedford | Journalist (ret.) |
| * Kemp, Lt.-Col. Sir George | 1866 | Manchester, N.W. | Flannel manufacturer |
| * King, Joseph | 1860 | Somerset, N. | Barrister; author |
| Lamb, Ernest Henry, C.M.G. | 1876 | Rochester | Elec. engineer; telephone expert |
| * Lambert, George | 1866 | Devon (S. Molton) | Landowner; Civ. Lord Admiralty |
| Lambert, Rd. Cornthwaite | 1868 | Wilts (Cricklade) | Barrister; L.C.C. |
| Lawson, Sir Wilfrid, Bt. | 1862 | Cmb'land (Cockermh) | Landowner |
| * Leach, Charles | 1867 | Yorks. (Colne Valley) | Former Congregational minister |
| * Levy, Sir Maurice | 1859 | Leics. (Loughboro') | Manufacturer and merchant |
| * Lewis, John Herbert | 1858 | Flintshire | Parly. sec. Local Government Board |
| Logan, John W., A.M.I.C.E. | 1845 | Leics. (Harborough) | Railway contractor (ret.) |
| * Lough, Rt. Hon. Thomas | 1850 | Islington, W. | Tea merchant (ret.); former parly. sec. Board of Education |
| * Low, Sir Frederick, K.C. | 1856 | Norwich | Recorder of Ipswich |
| * Lyell, Charles Henry | 1875 | Edinburgh, S. | Private sec. to Mr. Asquith |
| * McCallum, John Mills | 1847 | Paisley | Soap manufacturer |
| * McCurdy, Charles Albert | 1870 | Northampton | Barrister Midland Circuit |
| * Macdonald, John Arch. M. | 1854 | Falkirk Burghs | Secretary to Cobden Club |
| * McKenna, Rt. Hon. Reg. K.C. | 1863 | Monmouth, N. | Home Secretary |
| * McLaren, Hon. Francis W. S. | 1866 | Lincs. (Spalding) | Parly. priv. sec. to Mr. Harcourt |
| * McLaren, Hon. H. Duncan | 1879 | Leics. (Bosworth) | Ironmaster; e.s. Ld. Aberconway |
| * McLaren, W. Stowe Bright | 1853 | Ches. (Crewe) | Director coal and iron companies |
| MacLean, Donald | 1864 | Peebles & Selkirk | Solicitor |
| McMicking, Maj. Gilb., C.M.G. | 1862 | Kirkcudbright | Army (ret.) |
| * Macnamara, Rt. Hon. Thos. James, LL.D. | 1861 | Camberwell, N. | Journalist; parl. sec. to Admiralty |
| Macpherson James Ian | 1880 | Ross & Cromarty | Barrister |
| * Manfield, Harry | 1855 | Northants, Mid. | Boot manufacturer |
| * Markham, Sir Arthur, Bt. | 1866 | Notts. (Mansfield) | Chairman of colliery companies |
| * Marks, Sir George Croydon | 1858 | Cornwall (Launce'nn) | Consulting engineer |
| Marshall, Arthur Harold | 1870 | Wakefield | Barrister; North-eastern Circuit |
| * Martin, Hon. Joseph, K.C. | 1852 | S't. Pancras, E. | Barrister; former Prem. Brit. Columb. |
| Mason, David Marshall | 1866 | Coventry | Merchant and banker |
| † Masterman, Charles F. G. | 1873 | Bethnal Grn., S.W. | Journalist and author; parly. sec. to Home Office |
| * Menzies, Sir Walter | 1856 | Lanark, S. | Ret. Ironmaster |
| * Middlebrook, William | 1851 | Leeds, S. | Solicitor |
| * Miller, J. Duncan | 1871 | Lanark, N.E. | Barrister |
| * Molteno, Percy Alport | 1861 | Dumfriesshire | Barr.; shipowner (D. Currie & Co.) |
| * Mond, Sir Alfred, Bt. | 1868 | Swansea Town | Barrister; alkali manufacturer |
| Money, L. G. Chiozza | 1870 | Northants, E. | Author and journalist |
| * Montagu, Hon. Ed. Samuel | 1879 | Camb. (Chesterton) | Author; parly. under-sec. for India |
| * Morgan, George Hay | 1866 | Cornwall (Truro) | Barrister |
| * Morrell, Philip Edward | 1870 | Burnley | Solicitor (Philpott & Morrell) |
| * Morton, Alphaeus Cleophas | 1840 | Sutherlandshire | Architect and surveyor |
| * Munro, Robert, K.C. | 1868 | Wick Burghs | Barrister |
| * Munro, Ferguson, Rt. Hon. R.C. | 1860 | Leith Burghs | Army (ret.); Referee of priv. bills |
| * Murray, Capt. the Hon. A. C. | 1879 | Kincardineshire | Army (ret.); parly. priv. sec. to Sir E. Grey |
| Needham, Christopher T. | 1866 | Manchester, S.W. | Iron and steel merchant |
| * Neilson, Francis | 1867 | Ches. (Hyde) | Journalist and author |
| * Nicholson, Charles Norris | 1859 | Yorks. (Doncaster) | Barrister |
| * Norman, Sir Henry | 1858 | Blackburn | Journalist and author; former assist. postmaster-general |
| * Norton, Capt. the Hon. Cecil | 1850 | Newington, W. | Army; assistant postmaster-general |
| * Nuttall, Harry | 1849 | Lancs. (Stretford) | Merchant |
| * Ogden, Fred | 1871 | Yorks. W.R. (Pudsey) | Boot manufacturer |
| * Palmer, Godfrey Mark | 1878 | Durham (Jarrow) | Shipowner and shipbuilder |
| Pearce, Robert | 1840 | Staffs. (Leek) | Solicitor (Baylis, Pearce, & Co.) |
| * Pearce, William | 1853 | Tower Hamlets (Limehouse) | Chemical manufacturer |
| * Pearson, Hon. Weetman | 1882 | Suffolk, (Eyc) | e.s. Baron Cowdray |
| * Pearse, Rt. Hon. J. Albert | 1860 | Yorks. (Rotherham) | Pres. of the Board of Education. |

| Member | Date of Birth | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|--|---------------|--------------------------------|---|
| * Philipps, Col. Ivor, D.S.O. . . . | 1861 | Southampton | Army |
| * Pirie, Duncan Vernon | 1858 | Aberdeen, N. | Army; Egyptian and S. African campg. |
| * Pollard, Sir Geo. H., M.D. | 1864 | Lancs. S.E. (Eccles) | Barrister, Northern Circuit |
| * Ponsonby, Arthur A. W. H. | 1871 | Stirling Burghs | Diplomatic service (ret.) |
| * Price, Charles Edward | 1857 | Edinburgh (Central) | Biscuit manf. (ret.) (McVitie & Price) |
| * Price, Sir R. J., M.R.C.S. | 1854 | Norfolk, E. | Barrister |
| * Priestley, Sir Arthur | 1864 | Grantham | Landowner |
| * Priestley, Sir William E. B. | 1859 | Bradford, E. | Dress goods manufacturer |
| * Primrose, Hon. Neil Jas. A. | 1882 | Camb. (Wisbech) | J.P., L.C.C.; alderman |
| * Pringle, Wm. Mather R. | 1874 | Lanark, N.W. | Barrister |
| * Radford, Geo. Heynes, LL.B. | 1851 | Islington, E. | Solicitor |
| * Raffan, Peter Wilson | 1863 | Lancs. (Leigh) | Printer and publisher |
| * Raphael, Sir Herbert Hy., Bt. | 1859 | Derbyshire, S. | Barrister |
| * RCA, Walter Russell | 1873 | Scarborough | Shipowner |
| * Rendall, Athelstan | 1871 | Glos. (Thornbury) | Solicitor |
| * Richardson, Albion Henry H. | 1874 | Camb'well (Peck'am) | Solicitor |
| * Roberts, Charles Henry | 1865 | Lincoln | Commissioner of Lunacy (unpaid) |
| * Roberts, Sir John H., Bt. | 1863 | Denbighshire | Landowner; author |
| * Robertson, Sir G. S., K.C.S.I. | 1852 | Bradford (Central) | Indian medical service (ret.) |
| * Robertson, John Mackinnon | 1856 | Nth'land (Tyneside) | Parly. sec. Board of Trade. |
| * Robinson, Sidney | 1863 | Brecknockshire | Timber merchant |
| * Roch, Walter Francis | 1881 | Pembroke | Solicitor |
| * Roe, Sir Thomas | 1832 | Derby | Timber merchant |
| * Rose, Sir Chas. Day, Bt. | 1847 | Camb. (Newmarket) | Banker (ret.) |
| * Rowlands, James | 1851 | Kent (Dartford) | Watch case maker |
| * Rowntree, Arnold S. | 1872 | York | Cocoa manufacturer |
| * Runciman, Rt. Hn. Walter | 1870 | Dewsbury | Pres. of the Board. of Agriculture. |
| * Samuel, Jonathan | 1853 | Stockton-on-Tees | Grocer |
| * Samuel, Rt. Hn. H. Louis | 1870 | Yorks. N.R. (C'land) | Banker (ret.); Postmaster-General |
| * Samuel, Stuart Montagu | 1856 | Tower Hamlets (Whitechapel) | Banker |
| * Schwann, Rt. Hn. Sir C. E., Bt. | 1844 | Manchester, N. | Merchant |
| * Scott, Alexander McCallum | 1874 | Glasgow (Bridgeton) | Barrister; author |
| * Seely, Rt. Hn. Col. J. E. B. | 1868 | Derby (Ilkeston) | Barr.; army; Under-Sec. Colonies |
| * Sherwell, Arthur J., D.S.O. | 1863 | Huddersfield | Author and journalist |
| * Shortt, Edward, K.C. | 1862 | Newcastle-on-Tyne | Barrister, N.E. circuit |
| * Simon, Sir J. A., M.C., K.C.V.O. | 1873 | Essex (Waltham's w) | Barrister; Solicitor-General |
| * Smith, Hastings B. Lees | 1878 | Northampton | Lecturer and author |
| * Soames, Arthur Wellesley | 1852 | Norfolk, S. | Architect (ret.) |
| * Spicer, Sir Albert, Bt. | 1849 | Hackney (Central) | Paper mfr.; Pres. London Chamber of Commerce, 1907-10 |
| Strauss, Edward Anthony | 1862 | Southwark, W. | Hop merchant |
| * Summers, James Woolley | 1849 | Flint District | Ironmaster |
| * Sutherland, John Ebenezer | 1854 | Elgin Burghs | Fish curer |
| * Taylor, Theodore Cooke | 1850 | Lancs. S.E. (Rdcliffe) | Woollen manufacturers |
| * Tennant, Harold John | 1865 | Berwickshire | Fin. Sec. War Office |
| * Thomas, Abel, K.C. | 1848 | Carmarthenshire | Barrister, S. Wales and Chester circuit |
| * Thorne, George Rennie | 1853 | Wolverhampton, E. | Solicitor |
| * Toulmin, Sir George | 1857 | Lancs. (Bury) | Newspaper proprietor |
| * Trevelyan, Charles Phillips | 1870 | Yorks. W.R. (Elland) | Parly. sec. Board of Education |
| * Ure, Rt. Hn. Alex., K.C. | 1853 | Linlithgowshire | Lord Advocate for Scotland |
| * Vaughan-Davies, Matthew | 1840 | Cardiganshire | Landowner |
| * Verney, Sir Harry C. W., Bt. | 1881 | Bucks., N. | Barr.; parly priv. sec. to Mr. Birrell |
| * Walters, John Tudor | 1866 | Sheffield (Brightside) | Surveyor |
| * Walton, Sir Joseph, Bt. | 1849 | Yorks. (Barnsley) | Coal owner |
| * Ward, John | 1866 | Stoke-on-Trent | Secretary to Navvies' Union |
| * Ward, William Dudley | 1877 | Southampton | Barr.; Treasurer of the Household |
| * Waring, Captain W. | 1876 | Banffshire | Army (ret.) |
| * Warner, Sir Thomas C. T., Bt. | 1857 | Staffs. (Lichfield) | Landowner; railway director |
| * Wason, John Cathcart | 1848 | Orkney & Shetland | Farmer |
| * Wason, Rt. Hon. Eugene | 1846 | Clack. & Kinross | Barrister |
| * Watt, Henry Anderson | 1868 | Glasgow (College) | Barrister |
| Webb, Henry | 1870 | Glos. (For. of Dean) | Mining Eng.; (Ocean Collieries, Ltd.) |
| * Wedgwood, Josiah Clement | 1872 | Newcastle-u-Lyme | Naval architect |
| * White, Sir George | 1840 | Norfolk, N.W. | Leather and shoe manufacturer |
| White, James Dundas | 1866 | Glasgow (Tradeston) | Barr. & auth.; parly. sec. to Ld. Pentland |
| * White, Sir Luke | 1845 | Yorks. (Buckrose) | Solicitor; coroner |
| * Whitehouse, John Howard | 1873 | Lanark (Mid.) | Par. pri. sec. to Mr. Masterman |
| * Whitley, Rt. Hn. J. Henry | 1866 | Halifax | Cotton spin.; dp. Spkr. and chm. of Com. |
| * Whittaker, Rt. Hn. Sir Thos. | 1850 | Yorks. (Spen V.) | Newspaper proprietor (ret.) |
| * Whyte, Alex. Frederick | 1883 | Perth | Secretary to Mr. Churchill |
| * Wiles, Thomas | 1861 | Islington, S. | Grain. merchant; parly. priv. sec. to Mr. McKinnon Wood |
| * Williams, Colonel Penry | 1866 | Middlesbrough | Ironmaster |
| * Williams, William Llewellyn | 1867 | Carmarthen Dist. | Barrister |

| Member | Date of Birth | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| *Williamson, Sir Arch., Bt. | 1860 | Elgin and Nairn . . | Barrister |
| *Wilson, Henry Joseph | 1833 | Yorks. (Holmfirth) . | Gold and silver smelter |
| *Wilson, Hon. Guy Greville | 1877 | Hull, W. | Shipowner and builder; army (ret.) |
| *Wilson, John | 1837 | Durham, Mid. | Treasurer of the Miners' Association |
| *Wilson, Rt. Hn. John Wm. | 1858 | Worcestershire, N. . | Chemical manufacturer |
| *Winfrey, Richard | 1858 | Norfolk, S.W. | Newspaper proprietor |
| *Wood, Rt. Hn. T. McKinnon | 1855 | Glasgow (S. Rollox) . | Financial Secretary to the Treasury |
| *Young, William | 1863 | Perthshire, E. | Merchant and banker |
| *Yoxall, Sir James Henry | 1857 | Nottingham, W. . . . | Author; sec. to the N.U.T |

LABOUR MEMBERS (42 Seats).

| | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------|-------------------------|--|
| *Abraham, Rt. Hon. William | 1842 | Glam. (Rhondda) . . | Miners' agent |
| Adamson, William | 1863 | Fife, W. | Secretary of Miners' Association |
| *Barnes, George Nicol | 1859 | Glasgow (B'friars) . | Engineers' parly. representative |
| *Bowerman, Charles William | 1851 | Deptford | Parly. sec. London Soc. of Compositors |
| *Brace, W. | 1865 | Glamorgan, S. | Vice-pres. S. Wales Miners' Federation |
| *Clynes, John Robert | 1869 | Manchester, N.E. . . | Sec. Oldham & Dist. Trades Council |
| *Crooks, William | 1852 | Woolwich | Cooper; L.C.C. |
| *Duncan, Charles | 1865 | Barrow-in-Furness . | Engineer; gen. sec. Workers' Union |
| *Edwards, Enoch | 1852 | Hanley | President of Miners' Federation |
| *Gill, Alfred Henry | 1856 | Bolton | Sec. Bolton Operative Spinners' Assoc. |
| Goldstone, Frank Walter | 1870 | Sunderland | Ex-schoolmaster |
| *Hall, Frederick | 1855 | Yorks. (Normanton) . | Agent Yorkshire Miners' Association |
| *Hancock, John George | 1857 | Derbyshire (Mid.) . . | Miners' agent for Nottingham |
| *Hardie, James Keir | 1856 | Merthyr Tydvil. . . . | Ex-miner; journalist |
| *Harvey, William Edwin | 1852 | Derbyshire, N.E. . . | Fin. sec. Derbyshire Miners' Assoc. |
| *Haslam, James | 1842 | D'shire (Chesterf'd) . | Agent Derbyshire Miners' Association |
| *Henderson, Arthur | 1863 | D'ham (Barn. C'tle) . | Rep. and gen. org. Friendly Ironf'nders |
| *Hodge, John | 1855 | Lancs. S.E. (Gorton) . | Sec. Steel Smelters Amal. Association |
| *Hudson, Walter | 1852 | Newcastle-on-Tyne . | Irish sec. A.S.R.S. |
| *Johnson, William | 1849 | Warwick (N'eaton) . . | Secretary of Warwick Miners' Assoc. |
| *Jowett, Frederick William | 1864 | Bradford, W. | Manufacturer's manager |
| Lansbury, George | 1859 | Tower Hamlets | Timber merchant (I. Brine & Co.) |
| (Bow & Bromley) | | | |
| *Macdonald, James Ramsay | 1866 | Leicester | Chairman of Labour Party; journalist |
| *O'Grady, James | 1866 | Leeds, E. | Organiser Amal. Furnishing Tds. Assoc. |
| *Parker, James | 1863 | Halifax | President Halifax Trades Council |
| *Pointer, Joseph | 1875 | Sheffield (Attercliffe) | Patternmaker |
| *Richards, Thomas | 1859 | Monmouthshire, W. . | Secretary S. Wales Miners' Federation |
| Richardson, Thomas | 1868 | Whitehaven | Check weigher |
| *Roberts, George Henry | 1869 | Norwich | Organiser Typographical Association |
| *Smith, Albert | 1867 | Clitheroe | Secretary Nelson Overlookers' Assoc. |
| *Snowden, Philip | 1864 | Blackburn | Journalist; author |
| *Stanley, Albert | 1862 | Staffs. N.W. | Secretary Midland Miners' Federation |
| *Sutton, John Edward | 1862 | Manchester, E. | Agent Lancs. and Ches. Miners' Feder. |
| *Taylor, John Wilkinson | 1855 | D'ham (Ches.-le-St.) . | Secretary (Durham Coll. Mech.) |
| *Thomas, James Henry | 1874 | Derby | Organiser (Amal. Soc. Railway Ser.) |
| *Thorne, William James | 1857 | West Ham, S. | Secretary Gas Workers and Gen. Lab. |
| *Wadsworth, John | 1850 | Yorks. (Hallams're) . | Secretary Yorks. Miners |
| *Walsh, Stephen | 1859 | Lancs. S.W. (Ince) . . | Agent Lancs. and Cheshire Miners |
| *Wardle, George James | 1865 | Stockport | Journalist |
| *Wilkie, Alexander | 1850 | Dundee | Secretary Assoc. Shipwrights |
| *Williams, John | 1861 | Glamorgan, W. | Agent West District Miners, and sec. Amal. Soc. S. Wales Coll. Workers |
| *Wilson, Wm. Tyson | 1855 | Lancs. (Westgh'tn.) . | Carpenter |

IRISH NATIONALISTS (76 Seats).

| | | | |
|-------------------------------------|------|------------------------|--------------------------------|
| *Abraham, William | 1840 | Dublin (Harbour) . . | Nurseryman (ret.). |
| *Boland, John Pius | 1870 | Kerry, S. | Barrister; Irish whip |
| *Boyle, Daniel | 1859 | Mayo, N. | Journalist |
| *Brady, Patrick Joseph | 1868 | Dublin (St. Stephens) | Solicitor |
| *Clancy, John Joseph, K.C. | 1847 | Dublin Co., N. | Barrister; journalist |
| *Condon, Thomas Joseph | 1850 | Tipperary, E. | Cattle dealer and victualler |
| Cotton, W. | 1840 | Dublin, S. | Gas company director |
| Crumley, Patrick | — | Fermanagh, S. | Cattle exporter |
| *Cullinan, John | 1857 | Tipperary, S. | Journalist |
| *Delany, William | 1855 | Queen's Co. (Ossory) . | Farmer |
| *Devlin, Joseph | 1872 | Belfast, W. | Gen. Sec. United Irish League |
| *Dillon, John | 1851 | Mayo, E. | Surgeon (ret.) |
| †Donelan, Capt. Anth. J. C. | 1846 | Wicklow, E. | Army, party whip |
| *Doris, William | 1860 | Mayo, W. | Journalist |
| *Duffy, William John | 1865 | Galway, S. | Merchant |
| Esmonde, Dr. John | 1862 | Tipperary, N. | Medical practitioner |
| *Esmonde, Sir Thomas G. Bt. | 1862 | Wexford, N. | Banker; landowner |
| *Farrell, James Patrick | 1865 | Longford, N. | Journalist and newspaper owner |

| Member. | Date of Birth. | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|----------------------------|----------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| rench, Peter | 1844 | Wexford, S. | Farmer |
| eld, William | 1848 | Dublin (St. Patk's) | Victualler |
| tzgibbon, John | 1849 | Mayo, S. | Shopkeeper and farmer |
| avin, Michael Joseph | 1866 | Kerry, N. | Merchant |
| nnell, Laurence | 1854 | Westmeath, N. | Barrister; author |
| ywnn, Stephen Lucius | 1864 | Galway | Journalist and author |
| ackett, John | 1865 | Tipperary (Mid.) | Farmer |
| aviland-Burke, Edmund | 1864 | King's Co. (Tullme) | Party whip |
| ayden, John Patrick | 1863 | Roscommon, S. | Journalist |
| azleton, Richard | 1880 | Galway, N. | Journalist |
| oyce, Michael | 1862 | Limerick | Pilot |
| eating, Matthew | 1869 | Kilkenny (South) | Manufacturer's agent |
| elly, Edward Joseph | 1883 | Donegal, E. | Solicitor |
| ennedy, Vincent Paul | 1876 | Cavan, W. | Solicitor |
| ilbride, Denis | 1848 | Kildare, S. | Farmer |
| ardner, James C. R. | 1879 | Monaghan, N. | Solicitor |
| aw, Hugh Alexander | 1872 | Donegal, W. | Land |
| undon, Thomas | 1883 | Limerick, E. | |
| ynch, Arthur | 1861 | Clare, West | Journalist and author |
| Shee, Richard | 1851 | Tyrone (Mid.) | Merchant |
| ckKean, John | — | Monaghan, S. | Barrister |
| acNeill, John G. S., K.C. | 1849 | Donegal, S. | Barrister; author |
| acVeagh, Jeremiah | 1872 | Down, S. | Journalist |
| eaagher, Michael | 1846 | Kilkenny, N. | Farmer |
| eehan, Francis Edward | 1870 | Leitrim, N. | Merchant and farmer |
| eehan, Patrick Aloysius | 1852 | Queen's Co. (Leix.) | Merchant and farmer |
| folloy, Michael | 1850 | Carlow | Merchant |
| fooney, John J. | 1874 | Newry | Barrister |
| fuldoon, John | 1865 | Cork, E. | Barrister |
| fanetti, Joseph Patrick | 1851 | Dublin (Coll. Green) | Foreman painter |
| olan, Joseph | — | Louth, S. | Commission agent |
| ugent, Sir W. Richard, Bt. | 1865 | Westmeath, S. | Landowner |
| 'Brien, Patrick | 1853 | Kilkenny | Engineer |
| 'Connor, John | 1850 | Kildare, N. | Barrister |
| 'Connor, Thomas Power | 1848 | Liverpool (Scotland) | Journalist |
| 'Doherty, Philip | 1871 | Donegal, N. | Solicitor |
| 'Donnell, Thomas | 1872 | Kerry, W. | Barrister |
| 'Dowd, John | 1856 | Sligo, S. | Merchant |
| 'Kelly, Edward Peter | 1846 | Wicklow, W. | |
| 'Kelly, James | 1845 | Roscommon, N. | Journalist |
| 'Malley, William | 1857 | Galway (Connem'a) | Journalist |
| 'Neill, Charles, M.B. | 1854 | Armagh, S. | Physician |
| 'Shaughnessy, Patrick J. | 1872 | Limerick, W. | Solicitor |
| 'Shee, James John | 1866 | Waterford, W. | Solicitor |
| 'Sullivan, Timothy | 1879 | Kerry, E. | Merchant and farmer |
| 'Phillips, John | — | Longford, S. | |
| 'Power, Patrick Joseph | 1850 | Waterford, E. | A temporary Chm. of committees |
| 'Reddy, Michael | — | King's Co. (Birr.) | Farmer |
| 'Redmond, John Edward | 1856 | Waterford | Barrister; chm. Irish Parly. party |
| 'Redmond, Wm. Archer | 1886 | Tyrone, E. | Barrister |
| 'Redmond, Wm. H. K. | 1861 | Clare, E. | Barrister |
| Roche, Augustine | — | Louth | |
| Roche, John | 1848 | Galway, E. | Miller and farmer |
| Scanlan, Thomas | 1874 | Sligo, N. | Solicitor |
| Sheehy, David | 1844 | Meath, S. | Miller (ret.) |
| Smyth, Thomas Francis | 1875 | Leitrim, S. | Auctioneer |
| White, Patrick | 1860 | Meath, N. | Draper |
| Young, Samuel | 1822 | Cavan, E. | Whisky distiller |

INDEPENDENT NATIONALISTS (8 Seats).

| | | | |
|----------------------------|------|--------------|-----------------------|
| Brean, Eugene | 1856 | Cork, S.E. | |
| Hilhooley, James | 1845 | Cork Co., W. | Draper |
| Huiney, Patrick | 1867 | Cork, N. | Farmer |
| Healy, Maurice | 1859 | Cork City | Solicitor |
| Healy, Timothy Mich., K.C. | 1855 | Cork, N.E. | Barrister |
| 'Brien, William | 1852 | Cork City | Journalist and author |
| Sheehan, Daniel Daniel | 1874 | Cork (Mid.) | Journalist |
| Walsh, John | 1855 | Cork, S. | Spirit merchant |

CONSERVATIVES AND UNIONISTS (274 Seats).

| | | | |
|-------------------------------|------|-------------------|--|
| Agg-Gardner, James Tynte | 1846 | Cheltenham | Barrister; brewer |
| Aitken, Sir Wm. Max | 1879 | Ashton-under-Lyne | Bond merchant; Canadian ironmaster |
| Amery, Leopold C. M. S. | 1873 | Birmingham, S. | Barrister; author |
| Anson, Rt. Hn. Sir W. Reynell | 1843 | Oxford University | Barrister, jurist; late parly. Sec. Board of Education |
| Bt., D.C.L. | | | |

| Member | Date of Birth. | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|---|----------------|------------------------|--|
| *Anstruther-Gray, Major Wm. | 1859 | St. Andrews Burghs | Army (ret.) |
| *Archer-Shee, Maj. M., D.S.O. | 1873 | Finsbury, C. | Army; served S. African war |
| *Arkwright, John Stanhope... | 1872 | Hereford | Barrister |
| *Ashley, Wilfrid William | 1867 | Lancs. N. (B'pool) .. | Army (ret.) |
| Astor, Waldorf | 1879 | Plymouth | Barrister |
| *Bagot, Lieut.-Col. Jos. F. | 1854 | Westm'Td (Kendal) | Army; served S. African war |
| *Baird, John Lawrence, C.M.G. | 1874 | Warwicks're (Rugby) | Diplomatic service (ret.) |
| *Baker, Sir Randolph L., Bt. | 1879 | Dorset, N. | Land. |
| *Balcarres, Lord | 1871 | Lancs. N. (Chorley) | e.s. Earl of Clifford and Balcarres; Unionist whip |
| *Baldwin, Stanley | 1867 | W'cester (Bewdley) | Ironmaster |
| *Balfour, Rt. Hn. A. James | 1843 | City of London.... | Late Prime Minister |
| *Banbury, Sir Fred. Geo., Bt. | 1850 | City of London.... | Stockbroker (ret.) |
| *Baring, Cap. the Hn. G. Vic. | 1873 | Winchester | Army; served S. Africa and Juba Land |
| Barlow, C. A. Montague.... | — | Salford, S. | Barrister, N.E. circuit |
| *Barnston, Harry | 1870 | Ches. (Eddisbury) .. | Barrister (does not practise) |
| *Barrie, Hugh Thomas | 1860 | Londonderry, N. | Grain and produce merchant |
| *Bathurst, Charles | 1867 | Wilts (Wilton) | — |
| *Bathurst, Col. the Hn. A. B. | 1872 | Glos. (Cirencester) | Underwriter; army (ret.) |
| *Beach, Hon. Michael Hicks | 1877 | Glos. (Tewkesbury) | Only son of Viscount St. Aldwyn |
| *Beckett, Hon. Wm. Gervase | 1866 | Yorks. N.R. (W'tby) | Banker; owner of "Saturday Review" |
| Benn, Arthur Shirley | 1858 | Plymouth | Timber shipper |
| Bennett-Goldney, Francis | 1865 | Canterbury | Author |
| *Beresford, Ad. Ld. Charles Wm., G.C.V.O., K.C.B. | 1846 | Portsmouth | Navy (ret.); author |
| Bigland, Alfred | 1855 | Birkenhead | Merchant |
| *Bird, Alfred Frederick | 1849 | Wolverhampton, W. | Analytical manufacturing chemist |
| Boles, Lieut.-Col. Dennis F | 1861 | Som. (Wellington) | Landowner |
| Boscawen, Col. Sir A. S. T. Griffith | 1865 | Dudley | Army; L.C.C. |
| *Boyle, William Lewis | 1859 | Norfolk (Mid) | — |
| *Boyton, James | 1855 | Marylebone, E. | Auctioneer and surveyor |
| *Brassey, Henry Leonard C. | 1870 | Northants, N. | Army (ret.); landowner |
| *Bridgeman, William Clive | 1864 | Salop (Oswestry) | Landowner |
| *Bull, Sir William James | 1863 | Hammersmith | Solicitor and director |
| *Burdett-Coutts, Wm. L. A. B. | 1851 | Westminster | Author; philanthropist |
| *Burgoyne, Alan Hughes | 1880 | Kensington, N. | Wine grower and merch.; naval author |
| Burn, Col. Charles Rosdew | 1859 | Devon (Torquay) | Army (ret.) |
| *Butcher, John George, K.C. | 1852 | York | Barrister |
| *Campbell, Rt. Hon. J. H. M. | 1851 | Dublin University | Barrister |
| *Campion, William Robert | 1870 | Sussex (Lewes) | Stock exchange |
| *Carlile, Col. Sir Edward H. | 1852 | Herts. (St. Albans) .. | Thread manfr (J. & P. Coats, Ltd.) |
| *Carson, Rt. Hon. Sir Edward K.C. | 1854 | Dublin University | Late Irish Solicitor General |
| *Cassel, Felix, K.C. | 1869 | St. Pancras, W. | Barrister |
| *Castlereagh, Viscount, M.V.O. | 1878 | Maidstone | e.s. Marquess of Londonderry |
| *Cator, John | 1862 | Hunts. (Huntingdon) | Landowner |
| *Cautley, Henry Strother | 1863 | Sussex (E. G'stead) | Barrister |
| *Cave, George, K.C. | 1856 | Surrey (Kingston) .. | Recorder of Guildford |
| *Cavendish-Bentinck, Ld. H. | 1863 | Nottingham, S. | Army; L.C.C. 1907-10 |
| *Cecil, Evelyn Gascoyne | 1865 | Aston Manor | Barr.; auth.; commr. Int Rly Congress |
| *Cecil, Lord Hugh R. H. | 1869 | Oxford University | Fellow of Hertford College |
| *Chaloner, Col. Richard G. W. | 1856 | L'pool (Abercromby) | Army |
| *Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. J. A. | 1863 | Worcestershire, E. | Late Chancellor of Exchequer |
| *Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. Joseph | 1836 | Birmingham, W. | Late Colonial Secretary |
| *Chambers, James, K.C. | 1863 | Belfast, S. | Barrister |
| *Chaplin, Rt. Hon. Henry | 1841 | Surrey (Wimbledon) | Landowner; late Pres. Loc. Gov. Board |
| *Clay, Capt. H. Spender | 1875 | Kent (Tonbridge) | Army (ret.); landowner |
| *Clive, Capt. Percy Archer | 1873 | Hereford (Ross) | Army |
| *Clyde, James Avon, K.C. | 1863 | Edinburgh, W. | Barrister |
| *Coates, Maj. Sir Edward F. | 1853 | Lewisham | Stockbroker |
| *Collings, Rt. Hon. Jesse | 1831 | B'ham (Bordesley) | Merchant (ret.); late Un. Sec. H'e Dep. |
| *Cooper, Richard Ashmole | 1874 | Walsall | Chemical manufacturer |
| *Courthope, George Loyd | 1877 | Sussex (Ryc) | Barrister |
| *Craig, Capt. James | 1871 | Down, E. | Army |
| *Craig, Charles Curtis | 1869 | Antrim, S. | — |
| *Craig, Norman Carlyle, K.C. | 1868 | Kent (Isle of Thanet) | Barrister |
| *Craik, Sir Henry, K.C.B. | 1846 | Glas. & A'd'n Univ. | Ex-civil servant; author |
| Crichton-Stuart, Lord Ninian | 1883 | Cardiff District | Army (ret.) |
| *Cripps, Sir C. Alfred, K.C., K.C.V.O. | 1852 | Bucks. (Wycombe) | Barrister; author |
| *Croft, Henry Page | 1881 | Christchurch | Malster |
| *Dalrymple, Capt. Viscount (John Jas. Dalrymple) | 1879 | Wigtownshire | Army; e.s. of Earl of Stair |
| *Dalziel, Davison | 1854 | Lambeth (Brixton) | Chm. Pullman Co., Ld. and of the S'dard |
| *Dixon, Charles Harvey | 1863 | Lincs. (Boston) | Land. |

| Member | Date of Birth. | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|---|----------------|------------------------------------|--|
| Doughty, Sir George | 1854 | Grimsby | Merchant; shipowner |
| Du Cros, Arthur Philip | 1871 | Hastings | Chm. Dunlop Tyre Co., Ltd. |
| Duke, Henry E., K.C. | 1855 | Exeter | Barrister |
| Evans, Laming Worthington | 1868 | Colchester | Solicitor (ret.) |
| Eyres-Monsell, Lieut. B.M., R.N. | 1881 | Worc. (Evesham) .. | Navy |
| Faber, Capt. W. Vavasour .. | 1857 | Hampshire, W. | Royal Artillery (ret.) |
| Faber, George Denison, C.B. | 1852 | Clapham | Barr.; banker; form. Reg. of Privy C ^l |
| Falle, Bertram Godfray | 1860 | Portsmouth | Barr.; late English judge at Cairo |
| Fell, Arthur | 1850 | Great Yarmouth .. | Solicitor (ret.); author |
| Fetherstonhaugh, G'frey, K.C. | 1859 | Fermanagh, N. | Barrister; late Attorney-General |
| Finlay, Rt. Hon. Sir Robert B., G.C.M.G., K.C. | 1842 | Edinburgh and St. Andrews Univ. | Barrister |
| Fisher, Rt. Hon. Wm. Hayes | 1853 | Fulham | Barr.; aldmn L.C.C. 1907-10; U. whip |
| Fitzroy, Edward Algernon | 1869 | Northants, S. | Army (ret.) |
| Flannery, Sir J. F'tescue, Bt. | 1851 | Essex (Maldon) .. | Consulting engineer |
| Fleming, Valentine | 1882 | Oxon. (Henley) | Barrister |
| Fletcher, John Samuel | 1841 | Hampstead | Barr.; former Dep.-Chmn. L.C.C. |
| Forster, Henry William | 1866 | Kent (Sevenoaks) .. | Land. |
| Foster, Philip Staveley | 1865 | W'wick (S'ford-o-A.) | Land.; worsted spinner |
| Gardner, Ernest | 1846 | Berks. (Wokingham) | Land. |
| Gaskell, Maj. W. H. Houghton | 1854 | Lambeth, N. | Army |
| Gibbs, Lieut.-Col. G. Abraham | 1873 | Bristol, W. | Army |
| Gilmour, Capt. John | 1876 | Renfrewshire, E. | Army |
| Goldman, Charles Sydney .. | 1868 | Penryn & Falmouth | Prop'r. of "The Outlook"; author |
| Goldsmith, Francis B. H. | 1879 | Suffolk (Stowmarket) | Barr.; former L.C.C. Moderate whip |
| Gordon, John, K.C. | 1849 | Londonderry, S. | Barrister |
| Gordon, Hon. John E. | 1850 | Brighton | — |
| Goulding, Edward Alfred .. | 1863 | Worcester | Barr.; formerly parly. priv. sec. to Mr. Chaplin |
| *Grant, James Augustus | 1867 | C'land (Egremont) | Formerly parly. priv. sec. to Mr. G. Balfour |
| *Greene, Walter Raymond .. | 1869 | Hackney, N. | Lieut.-Col. Loyal Suffolk Hussars |
| *Gretton, John | 1867 | Rutland | Brewer (Bass, Ratcliffe, & Gretton, Ltd.) |
| *Griffiths, John Norton | 1871 | Wednesbury | Eng. contrac.; explor.; served S. African war |
| *Guinness, Hn. Walter Edward | 1880 | Bury St. Edmunds | Army; served S. African war |
| *Gwynne, Rupert Sackville .. | 1873 | Sussex (Eastbourne) | Barrister |
| *Haddock, George Bahr | 1863 | Lanes. N. (L'dale) | Shipowner (Harrison, Ainslie, & Co., Ltd.) |
| *Hall, Douglas Bernard | 1866 | H'shire (I. o. Wight) | Landowner |
| *Hall, Edward Marshall, K.C. | 1858 | L'pool (E. Toxteth) | Barrister |
| Hall, Frederick | 1864 | C'mberwell (D'wich) | L.C.C.; insurance broker |
| *Hambro, Angus Valdemar | 1883 | Dorset, S. | Barrister |
| *Hamersley, A. St. Geo., K.C. | 1848 | Oxon. (Woodstock) | Barr.; practised Canada & N. Zealand |
| *Hamilton, Lord Claud John | 1843 | Kensington, S. | Chmn. of G.E. Railway |
| *Hamilton, Marquess of | 1869 | Londonderry | e.s. of the Duke of Abercorn; army |
| *Hardy, Rt. Hon. Laurence .. | 1854 | Kent (Ashford) .. | Ironmaster on chmn's panel for Gd Com. |
| *Harmood-Banner, John S. | 1847 | Liverpool (Everton) | Chartered accountant; chmn. L'pool City Finance Comm. |
| *Harris, Henry Percy | 1856 | Paddington, S. | Barr.; former chmn. L.C.C. |
| *Harrison Broadley, Col. H. B. | 1853 | Y'ks. E.R. (H'd'shire) | Landowner |
| *Helmsey, Viscount | 1879 | Yorks. N.R. (Thirsk) | Grandson and heir to El. of Feversham |
| *Henderson, Major H. G'wood | 1875 | Berks (Abingdon) .. | Army (ret.); served S. African war |
| *Hickman, Col. Thos. E., C.B., D.S.O. | 1859 | Wolverhampton, S. | Army, served in Egypt; & S. Africa |
| *Hill, Sir Clement Lloyd, K.C.B., K.C.M.G. | 1845 | Shrewsbury | Diplomatic service (ret.) |
| *Hills, John Walter | 1867 | Durham | Solicitor; referee of private bills |
| Hill-Wood, Samuel | 1872 | Derbyshire (H. Peak) | Land. |
| *Hoare, Samuel J. G. | 1880 | Chelsea | L.C.C., 1907-10 |
| *Hohler, Gerald Fitzroy, K.C. | — | Chatham | Barrister on S.E. circuit |
| *Hope, Harry | 1865 | Buteshire | Farmer |
| *Hope, James Fitzalan | 1870 | Sheffield (Central) .. | Land. |
| *Horne, William Edgar | 1856 | Surrey (Guildford) .. | Surveyor; dir. Prudential |
| *Horner, Andrew Long, K.C. | 1864 | Tyrone, S. | Barrister |
| *Houston, Robert Paterson .. | 1853 | L'pool (W. Toxteth) | Steamship owner |
| *Hume-Williams, W. E., K.C. | — | Notts. (Bassetlaw) .. | Recorder of Norwich |
| *Hunt, Rowland | 1858 | Salop (Ludlow) .. | Land.; served in S. Africa |
| *Hunter, Maj. Sir C. R., Bt. | 1858 | Bath | Army (ret.); served S. Africa |
| Ingleby, Holcombe | 1854 | King's Lynn | Solicitor (ret.); author |
| *Jackson, Sir John, C.V.O. | 1851 | Devonport | Civil engineer; contractor |
| *Jardine, Ernest | 1859 | Somerset, E. | Machine builder |
| *Jessel, Capt. Herbert M. | 1866 | St. Pancras, S. | Army (ret.) |
| Joynson-Hicks, William | 1865 | M'sex (Brentford) .. | Solicitor |
| Kebby-Fletcher, John Robt. | 1869 | Ches. (Altrincham) .. | Provision merchant |
| *Kerr-Smiley, Peter Kerr | 1879 | Antrim, N. | Army (ret.); newspaper propr. |

| Member | Date of Birth. | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|---|----------------|-----------------------|--|
| * Kerry, Maj. the Earl of, D.S.O. | 1872 | Derbyshire, W. | Army; heir Marquess of Lansdowne |
| * Keswick, William | 1834 | Surrey (Epsom) | China merchant (Jardine & Co.) |
| * Kimber, Sir Henry, Bt. | 1834 | Wandsworth | Solicitor (ret.); banker |
| * Kinloch-Cooke, Sir Clement | 1854 | Devonport | Barr.; j'lst; chmn Cen. Emigra. Board |
| * Kirkwood, Capt. J. H. Morr. | 1877 | Essex, S.E. | Army; served S. African war |
| * Knight, Major E. Ayshford | 1863 | Kidderminster | Land.; army served S. African war |
| * Kyffin-Taylor, Col. Gerald | 1863 | L'pool (Kirkdale) | Solicitor; C. C. Liverpool |
| * Lane-Fox, Geo. Richard | 1870 | Yks. W.B. (Btn Ash) | Barrister; C. C. West Riding |
| * Larmor, Sir Joseph, D.Sc. | 1857 | Cambridge Univ. | Sec. Royal Society |
| † Law, Rt. Hon. A. Bonar | 1858 | Lancs. (Bootle) | Iron merchant (ret.) |
| * Lawson, Hon. Harry Lawson W. | 1862 | Tower H'ts (Mile E.) | Barrister; e.s. Baron Burnham |
| * Lee, Major Arthur Hamilton | 1868 | Hants. (Fareham) | Army and diplomatic (ret.); late Civil Lord of the Admiralty |
| * Lewisham, Viscount | 1831 | West Bromwich | e.s. Earl of Dartmouth |
| * Lloyd, George Ambrose | 1879 | Staffs., W. | Land. |
| * Locker-Lampson, Godfrey L.T. | 1875 | Salisbury | Barr.; diplomatic ser. (ret.); author |
| * Locker-Lampson, Oliver S. | 1880 | Hunts. (Ramsey) | Barrister; author |
| * Lockwood, Rt. Hon. Lieut.-Col. Amelius R., C.V.O. | 1847 | Essex (Epping) | Army (ret.) |
| * Long, Rt. Hon. Walter Hume | 1854 | Strand | Land.; late Chief Sec. for Ireland |
| * Lonsdale, Sir John, Bt. | 1849 | Armagh (Mid.) | Merchant (ret.); Irish Unionist whip |
| * Lowe, Sir Francis Wm. | 1852 | B'ham (Edgbaston) | Solicitor (ret.) |
| * Lowther, Claude Wm. Henry | 1870 | C'berland (Eskdale) | Diplomatic (ret.); served S. African w. |
| * Lowther, Rt. Hon. Jas. Wm. | 1855 | C'berland (Penrith) | Barrister; Speaker |
| * Lyttelton, Hon. J. Cavendish | 1881 | Worcs. (Droitwich) | Army (ret.); e.s. Viscount Cobham |
| * Lyttelton, Rt. Hn. A., K.C. | 1857 | S. George's (Han.Sq.) | Barr.; e.s. Baron Lyttelton; late Colonial Secretary |
| * MacCallmont, Col. James M. | 1847 | Antrim, E. | Army (ret.) |
| * MacCaw, Wm. John M. | 1850 | Down, W. | India merchant (ret.) |
| * Mackinder, Halford John | 1861 | Glasgow (Camlachie) | Barr.; auth.; Prof. Lond.Sch.of Econ. |
| * Macmaster, Donald, K.C. | 1846 | Surrey (Chertsey) | Barrister |
| * McNeill, Robert James | 1849 | Belfast, E. | Solicitor (ret.) |
| * McNeill, Ronald | 1861 | Kent (S. Augustine's) | Barr.; Journalist |
| * Magnus, Sir Philip | 1842 | London University | Professor of math'ics (ret.) |
| * Maitland, A. H. D. R. Steel | 1876 | Birmingham, E. | Land.; chief Unionist organiser |
| * Malcolm, Ian Zachary | 1868 | Croydon | Diplomatic service (ret.) |
| * Mallaby-Deeley, Harry | 1863 | Middlesex (Harrow) | Barrister; dir. Norwich Un. |
| * Mason, James Francis | 1861 | Windsor | Ironmaster |
| * Meysey-Thompson, E. C. | 1859 | Staffs. (Handsworth) | Director Hathorn, Davy (engineers) |
| * Middlemore, J. Throgmorton | 1844 | Birmingham, N. | Philanthropist |
| * Midway, Francis Bingham | 1861 | Devon (Totnes) | Land. |
| * Mills, Hon. Charles Thos. | 1887 | Middlesex (Uxb'ge) | e.s. Baron Hillingdon; banker |
| * Mitchell-Thompson, Wm. | 1877 | Down, N. | Advocate; author |
| * Morrison-Bell, Capt. Ernest F. | 1864 | Armagh, N. | Barrister |
| * Morrison-Bell, Maj. Arthur C. | 1871 | Devon (Ashburton) | Army (ret.); served S. African war |
| * Morrison, Capt. James A. | 1871 | Devon (Honiton) | Army (ret.) |
| * Mount, William Arthur | 1873 | Nottingham, E. | Army; served Sudan and S. Africa |
| * Neville, Reginald Jas. N. | 1866 | Berks (Newbury) | Barrister; land. |
| * Newdegate, F. A. Newdigate | 1863 | Wigan | Barrister; recorder Bury St. Edmunds |
| * Newman, Capt. J. R. B. P. | 1862 | W'wick (Tamworth) | Army (ret.) |
| * Newton, Harry Kottingham | 1871 | Middlesex (Enfield) | Army (ret.) |
| * Nicholson, Col. Wm. Graham | 1875 | Essex (Harwich) | Barrister; lieut. of City of London |
| * Nield, Herbert | 1862 | Hants. (Petersfield) | Distiller |
| * O'Neill, Capt. the Hon. A.E.B. | 1862 | Middlesex (Ealing) | Barr.; dep. chmn. Middlesex Sessions |
| * Orde-Powlett, Major the Hon. William G. A. | 1876 | Antrim (Mid.) | Army; heir Lord O'Neill |
| * Ormsby-Gore, Hon. Wm. G. A. | 1869 | Yorks. (Richmond) | Land. |
| * Paget, Almerie Hugh | 1885 | Denbigh District | Heir Baron Harlech |
| * Parker, Sir Gilbert | 1861 | Cambridge | Land. |
| * Parkes, Ebenezer | 1862 | Gravesend | Novelist; dramatist |
| * Pease, Herbert Pike | 1848 | B'gham (Central) | Ironmaster |
| * Peel, Capt. Robert Francis | 1867 | Darlington | Ironmaster, &c. |
| * Peel, Hn. W. Robt. Wellesley | 1874 | Suffolk (Woodb'ge) | Army |
| * Perkins, Walter Frank | 1867 | Taunton | Barrister; heir Viscount Peel |
| * Peto, Basil Edward | 1805 | Hants (New Forest) | Consulting surveyor |
| * Pole-Carew, Lt.-Gen. Sir R., K.C.B., C.V.O. | 1862 | Wilts (Devizes) | Builder and contractor |
| * Pollock, Ernest Murray, K.C. | 1849 | Cornwall (Bodmin) | Army (ret.); served Egypt, Afghan, S. Africa, &c. |
| * Pretzman, Capt. Ernest Geo. | 1861 | W'wick & L'm'gton | Barr.; former sec. to the Admiralty |
| * Pryce-Jones, Col. Edward | 1859 | Essex (Chelmsford) | Army (ret.) |
| * QUILTER, William E. C. | 1861 | Montgomery Dis. | Barrister; manufacturer |
| * Rankin, Sir James, Bt. | 1873 | Suffolk (Sudbury) | Land |
| * Ratcliff, Lieut.-Col. R. F. | 1842 | Hereford (L'minster) | Land |
| * Rawlinson, J. F. Peel, K.C. | 1867 | Staffs. (Burton) | Brewer (Bass, Ratcliff, & Gretton) |
| | 1860 | Cambridge Univ. | Recorder of Cambridge |

| Member. | Date of Birth. | Constituency. | Profession, &c. |
|---|----------------|--------------------------|--|
| * Rawson, Col. R. Hamilton .. | 1863 | Surrey (Reigate) .. | Army (ret.) |
| * Remnant, Jas. Farquharson .. | 1863 | Finsbury (Holborn) .. | Barrister |
| * Roberts, Samuel | 1852 | Sheffield (Ecclesall) .. | Barr.; director Cammell, Laird, &c. |
| * Rolleston, Sir John Powke L. | 1848 | Herts (Hertford) .. | Surveyor and director |
| * Ronaldshay, Earl of | 1876 | Middlesex (Hornsey) .. | Author, traveller; e.s. Marq. of Zetland |
| * Rothschild, Lionel Nathan de | 1852 | Bucks. (Aylesbury) .. | Banker |
| * Roys, Edmund | 1860 | Lincs. (Sleaford) .. | Solicitor and banker |
| * Rutherford, Col. John | 1854 | Lancs. (Darwen) .. | — |
| * Rutherford, Wm. Watson .. | 1853 | L'pool (W.Derby) .. | Solicitor; ex-Lord Mayor of Liverpool |
| * Salter, Arthur Clavell, K.C. .. | 1859 | Hants. N. | Recorder of Poole |
| * Samuel, Sir Harry Simon | 1853 | Lambeth (Norwood) .. | — |
| * Sanders, Robert Arthur | 1869 | Somer. (Bridgwater) .. | Barrister |
| * Sanderson, Lancelot, K.C. | 1863 | W'm'land (Appleby) .. | Recorder of Wigan |
| * Sandys, George John | 1875 | Somerset (Wells) .. | Army (ret.) |
| * Sassoon, Sir Edward A., Bt. | 1856 | Hythe | Land |
| Scott, Leslie Frederic, K.C. | 1869 | L'pool (Exchange) .. | Barrister |
| * Scott, Sir S. Edward, Bt. | 1873 | Marleybone, W. | Army (ret.) |
| * Scott-Dickson, Rt. Hon. Charles, K.C. | 1850 | Glasgow (Central) .. | Late Lord Advocate |
| * Smith, Rt. Hn. Fred. E., K.C. | 1872 | Liverpool (Walton) .. | Barrister |
| * Smith, Harold | 1876 | Warrington | Barrister; formerly surveyor & valuer |
| * Spear, Sir John Ward | 1848 | Devon (Tavistock) .. | Tenant farmer; alderman Devon C.C. |
| * Stanier, Beville | 1867 | Shropshire (N'port) .. | Land.; dep. chmn N. Staffs. Rly. |
| * Stanley, Hon. A., M.V.O. | 1869 | Lancs. S.W. (O'kirk) .. | Diplomatic service |
| * Stanley, Maj. B. Geo. Fred. | 1872 | Preston | Army |
| * Starkey, John Ralph | 1859 | Notts. (Newark) .. | — |
| * Staveley-Hill, Henry S. | 1865 | Staffs. (Kingsw'ford) .. | Barrister; referee of private bills |
| * Stewart, Gershom | 1857 | Cheshire (Wirral) .. | Merchant (China) |
| * Strauss, Arthur | 1847 | Paddington, N. | Tin and copper merchant |
| Swift, Rigby P. W., K.C. | 1874 | St. Helens | Barrister, northern circuit |
| * Sykes, Major Alan John | 1869 | Cheshire (Knuts'd) .. | Bleacher, director, &c. |
| Sykes, Mark | 1879 | Hull (Central) | Diplomatic service (ret.) |
| * Talbot, Ld. Edmund, M.V.O. | 1855 | Sussex (Chichester) .. | Army (ret.); late Jnr. Lord of the Treas. |
| * Terrell, George | 1862 | Wilts. (Chippenham) .. | Solicitor; director |
| * Terrell, Henry, K.C. | 1856 | Gloucester | Barrister |
| * Thompson, Robert | 1838 | Belfast, N. | Flax spinner |
| * Thynne, Lord Alex. Geo. | 1873 | Bath | L.C.C.; sometime Spec. Com. |
| * Tobin, Alfred Aspinall, K.C. | 1855 | Preston | Recorder of Salford |
| * Touche, Geo. Alexander | 1861 | Islington, N. | Chartered accountant |
| * Tryon, Capt. Geo. Clement | 1871 | Brighton | Army (ret.) |
| * Tullibardine, Marquess of, M.V.O., D.S.O. | 1871 | Perthshire, W. | Army; e.s. Duke of Atholl |
| * Valentia, Viscount C. B., M.V.O. | 1843 | Oxford | Army (ret.); Unionist whip |
| * Walker, Col. Wm. Hall | 1856 | Lancs. S.W. (Widn's) .. | Brewer |
| * Walrond, Hn. W. Lionel C. | 1876 | Devon (Tiverton) .. | e.s. Baron Waleran |
| * Ward, Arnold Sandwith | 1876 | Herts. (Watford) .. | Barrister |
| * Warde, Col. Chas. Edward | 1845 | Kent (Medway) | Army (ret.) |
| Wcigall, Capt. A. | 1874 | Lincs. (Horncastle) .. | Land. |
| * Wheeler, Granville Chas. H. | 1872 | Kent (Faversham) .. | Barrister |
| * White, Maj. G. Dalrymple | 1866 | Lancs. (Southport) .. | Army |
| * Williams, Col. Robert | 1848 | Dorset, W. | Banker (Williams Deacon's, also Wilts-Dorset) |
| * Willoughby, Major Hn. Claude .. | 1872 | Lincs. (Stamford) .. | Army |
| * Wilson, Arthur Stanley | 1868 | Yorks. E.R. (H'ness) .. | Land. |
| * Winterton, Earl | 1883 | Sussex (Horsham) .. | Irish peer |
| * Wolmer, Viscount | 1887 | Lancs. (Newton) .. | e.s. Earl of Selborne |
| * Wood, Hon. Edward F. L. | 1881 | Yorks. W.R. (Ripon) .. | e.s. Viscount Halifax |
| * Wood, John | 1857 | Stalybridge | Barrister |
| * Wortley, Rt. Hn. C.B.S., K.C. | 1851 | Sheffield (Hallam) .. | Barr.; dir. of G.C.R., and chmn. City and S.L.R. |
| * Wyndham, Rt. Hon. George | 1863 | Dover | Army (ret.) |
| Yate, Col. C. E., C.S.I., C.M.G. | 1849 | Leics. (Melton) .. | Army; civil service; Afghanistan |
| * Yerburch, Robert Armstrong | 1853 | Chester | Barrister; pres. Navy League |
| * Younger, Sir George, Bt. | 1851 | Ayr Burghs | Brewer and banker |

OBITUARY.

THE FOLLOWING MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS HAVE DIED SINCE LAST SESSION:—

| | |
|--|--|
| Samuel Henry Butcher (<i>Cambridge University</i>). | James Galloway Weir (<i>Ross and Cromarty</i>). |
| Rt. Hon. Sir Charles Dilke, Bt. (<i>Gloucester, Forest of Dean</i>). | Dr. Adam Rolland Rainy (<i>Kilmarnock Burghs</i>). |
| | Sir John Briggs (<i>Yorks., Keighley</i>). |
| | Dr. A. P. Hillier (<i>Herts., Hitchin</i>). |

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Speaker : RT. HON. EARL LOREBURN G.C.M.G., (Lord Chancellor), 8, Eaton Square, S.W.

Chairman of Committees : THE EARL OF DONOUGHMORE, 5, Chesterfield Gardens, W.

Alphabetical List of the House of Lords, with date of birth, family name, and profession or public service. The family name appears in brackets after the title. L before the name indicates that the peer is a Liberal. In the case of political record, only the last service or present office is given. * Irish Representative Peer. ** Scottish Representative Peer.

- L Aberconway, L. (McLaren), 1850, Barr.; iron, steel, and granite master; M.P. '80-86, '92-10.
- Abercorn, D. (Hamilton), 1838, K.G., P.C. (I.); M.P. '60-80; Lord-Lieut. Donegal.
- Abercromby, L. (Abercromby), 1838.
- Aberdare, L. (Bruce), 1851.
- L Aberdeen, E. (Gordon), 1847, K.T., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. of Ireland.
- Abergavenny, M. (Nevill), 1826, K.G., Army (ret.).
- Abingdon, E. (Bertie), 1836.
- Abinger, L. (Scarlett), 1872, Ex. Dipl. Ser.
- L Acton, L. (Dalberg-Acton), 1870; Dipl. Ser. Lord in Waiting.
- Addington, L. (Hubbard), 1842, M.P. '74, 80, 87-89; Merchant.
- Allesbury, M. (Brudenell-Bruce), 1878, Army (ret.); served S. Africa.
- Ailsa, M. (Kennedy), 1847, Army (ret.).
- L Airedale, L. (Kitson), 1863.
- Albany, D. 1884, Prince of the Blood, K.G.
- Albermarle, E. (Keppel), 1858, K.C.V.O., Army; M.P. '92-04.
- Aldenharn, L. (Gibbs), 1846, Merchant and Banker; M.P. '02-06.
- Alington, L. (Sturt), 1859, K.C.V.O., C.C. Dorset; M.P. '91-04.
- L Allendale, V. (Beaumont), 1860, P.C.; Army; late Liberal Whip 1905-7.
- Allerton, L. (Jackson), 1840, P.C.; former Chief Secy. Ireland '91-92; Railway Chairman; M.P. '80-02.
- Alverstone, L. (Webster), 1842, G.C.M.G., P.C. Lord Chief Justice. M.P. '85-00.
- Amherst, E. (Amherst), 1856; Army (ret.); served Soudan.
- Ampthill, L. (Russell), 1869, G.C.I.E.; Gov. Madras '00-05.
- Ancaster, E. (Heathcote-Drummond-Willoughby), 1867, P.C.; M.P. '94-10.
- Anglesey, M. (Paget), 1885.
- Annaly, L. (White), 1857, Army; Lord in Waiting.
- Ardilaun, L. (Guinness), 1840.
- Argyll, D. (Campbell), 1845, K.T., G.C.M.G., P.C.; Gov. Gen. Canada '78-83; M.P. '68-78, '95-00.
- L Armitstead, L. (Armitstead), 1824; M.P. '68-73, '80-85.
- Armstrong, L. (Watson-Armstrong), 1863.
- Arran, E. (Gore), 1824, K.P.; Army (ret.); served Egypt '96, and S.A.
- Arundell of Wardour, L. (Arundell), 1859.
- Ashbourne, L. (Gibson), 1837, P.C.; formerly Ld. Chancellor Ireland; M.P. '75-85.
- Ashburnham, E. (Ashburnham), 1840.
- Ashburton, L. (Baring), 1866.
- L Ashby S. Ledgers, L. (Guest), 1873; Paymaster-General; M.P. '00-10; served S.A. War.
- Ashcombe, L. (Cubitt), 1828, P.C.; M.P. '80-92.
- L Ashton, L. (Williamson), 1842; M.P. '86-95.
- L Ashton of Hyde (Ashton), 1855; M.P. '95-11.
- * Ashtown, L. (Trench), 1868.
- Athlumney, L. (Somerville), 1865; Army (ret.); served Egypt and S.A.
- Atholl, D. (Stewart-Murray), 1840, K.T.; Lord-Lieut. Perthshire.
- Atkinson, L. (Atkinson), 1842; Life Peer; Lord of Appeal; M.P. '95-05.
- Auckland, L. (Eden), 1859.
- Avebury, L. (Lubbock), 1834, P.C., F.R.S., M.P. '70-80; Banker, Author.
- Aylesford, E. (Finch), 1851.
- Bagot, L. (Bagot), 1856.
- * Balfour of Burleigh, L. (Bruce), 1849, P.C., K.T.; Temp. Chm. Ho. Lords; Sec. Scotland '95-03.
- * Bandon, E. (Bernard), 1850; Lord-Lieut. Cork.
- Bangor, Bp. (Williams), 1845; Consec. '99.
- Barnard, L. (Vane), 1854; Barrister.
- Barrington, V. (Barrington), 1848; Army (ret.).
- Barrymore, L. (Smith-Barry), 1843, P.C. (I); M.P. '67-74, '86-00.
- * Basing, L. (Sclater-Booth), 1860, C.B.; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Bateman, L. (Bateman-Hanbury), 1856, Army (ret.); served Egypt '82.
- Bath, M. (Thynne), 1862; Lord-Lieut. Somerset; Under Sec. State India '05; M.P. '86-92.
- Bath and Wells, Bp. (Kennion), 1845; Consec. '82.
- Bathurst, E. (Bathurst), 1864; C.M.G.; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- L Beauchamp, E. (Lygon), 1872, K.C.M.G., P.C.; First Commissioner of Works.
- Beaufort, D. (Somerset), 1847; Army (ret.).
- Bedford, D. (Russell), 1858, K.G., F.R.S.; Lord-Lieut. Middlesex; Chm. Beds. C.C.
- * Belhaven and Stenton, L. (Hamilton), 1840; Army (ret.); served Zulu War '79.
- * Belmore, E. (Lowry-Corry), 1835, P.C., G.C.M.G.; Gov. N.S. Wales '68-72.
- Belper, L. (Strutt), 1840; Chm. Notts. C.C.; M.P. '68-72.
- Berkeley, E. (Berkeley), 1865; Navy (ret.).
- Berwick, L. (Noel-Hill), 1877; Dipl. Ser.
- Bessborough, E. (Ponsonby), 1851, C.V.O., C.B.; Navy (ret.); Barr.; Chm. L.B. and S.C. Ry.
- Biddulph, L. (Biddulph), 1834; Banker; M.P. '65-00.
- L Blyth, L. (Blyth), 1841; Director Gilbey's, Ltd.; promotes agricultural interests and tuberculosis research.
- Blythwood, L. (Campbell), 1839; former Rector All Saints, Marylebone.
- Bolingbroke and St. John, V. (St. John), 1896; Minor.
- Bolton, L. (Orde-Powlett), 1845; Chm. C.C., N.R. Yorks.
- L Boston, L. (Irby), 1860.
- Boyne, V. (Hamilton Russell), 1864; Army (ret.).
- Brabourne, L. (Knatchbull-Illegessen), 1885; Army.
- Bradford, E. (Bridgeman), 1845; Army (ret.); M.P. '67-85.

- L Brasse, E. (*Brassey*), 1836, G.C.B.; Pres. London Chamber of Commerce; M.P. '65-68.
- Braybrooke, L. (*Neville*), 1855.
- Braye, L. (*Verney-Cave*), 1849.
- L Breadalbane, M. (*Campbell*), 1851, K.G., P.C.; Ld. Steward and High Commr. Ch. Scotland '93-95.
- Bridport, V. (*Hood*), 1839; Army (ret.); M.P. '68-80.
- Bristol, Bp. (*Browne*), 1833, D.D.; Consec. '95.
- Bristol, M. (*Hervey*), 1863, M.V.O.; Navy.
- Brougham and Vaux, L. (*Brougham*), 1836; K.C.V.O.
- Brownlow, E. (*Cust*), 1844; Lord-Lieut. Lincs; Parly. Sec. War Office '89-92.
- Buccleuch, D. (*Montagu-Douglas-Scott*), 1831; M.P. '53-68; '74-80.
- L Buckinghamshire, E. (*Hobart-Hampden-Mercer-Henderson*), 1860.
- L Burghclere, L. (*Gardner*), 1847, P.C.; Pres. Bd. Agric. '92-95; M.P. '85-95.
- Burnham, L. (*Levy-Lawson*), 1833, K.C.V.O.; News. Propr.; Lieut. City of London.
- Bute, M. (*Crichton-Stuart*), 1881; Lord Lieut. Buteshire.
- Byron, L. (*Byron*), 1855.
- Cadogan, E. (*Cadogan*), 1840, K.G., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Ireland '95-02.
- Cairns, E. (*Cairns*), 1865.
- Calthorpe, L. (*Gough-Calthorpe*), 1831, K.C.B.; Army (ret.); served Crimea.
- Camden, M. (*Pratt*), 1872; Lord-Lieut. Kent.
- Camoy, L. (*Stonor*), 1884; Dipl. Ser.
- Camperdown, E. (*Haldane-Duncan*), 1841; Temp. Chm. House of Lords.
- Canterbury, Archbp. (*Davidson*), 1848; Consec. '91; tr. '95 and '03.
- Canterbury, V. (*Manners-Sutton*), 1839.
- Carew, L. (*Carew*), 1860.
- Carlisle, E. (*Howard*), 1867; Army (ret.); served S.A.; M.P. '04-11.
- Carlisle, Bp. (*Diggle*), cons. 1905.
- Carnarvon, E. (*Herbert*), 1866; High Steward Newbury.
- L Carrington, L. (*Wynn-Carrington*), 1843, K.G., P.C., G.C.M.G.; Lord Privy Seal.
- *Castlemaine, L. (*Handcock*), 1863; Lord-Lieut. West Meath.
- L*Castletown, L. (*Fitzpatrick*), 1848, K.P., C.M.G., P.C.; Army (ret.); served Egypt and S.A.; M.P. '80-83.
- Cathcart, E. (*Cathcart*), 1856; Army (ret.).
- Cawdor, E. (*Campbell*), 1870.
- L Charnwood, L. (*Benson*), 1864; M.P. '92-95.
- Chelmsford, L. (*Thesiger*), 1868, P.C., K.C.M.G.; Barr.; Gov. N.S. Wales.
- Chesham, L. (*Cavendish*), 1894; Minor.
- Chester, Bp. (*Jayne*), 1845, D.D.; Consec. '89.
- L Chesterfield, E. (*Scudamore-Stanhope*), 1854, P.C.; Barr.; Lord Steward H.M. Household.
- Cheylessmore, L. (*Eaton*), 1848, K.C.V.O., L.C.C.; Army (ret.).
- Chichester, E. (*Pelham*), 1871; Public Works Loan Commissioner.
- Chilston, V. (*Akers-Douglas*), 1851, P.C.; Barr.; M.P. '80-11.
- Cholmondeley, M. (*Cholmondeley*), 1858, P.C.
- Churchill, V. (*Spencer*), 1864; Army (ret.).
- Churston, L. (*Yarde-Buller*), 1873, M.V.O.; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Clanricarde, M. (*De Burgh-Canning*), 1832; Dipl. Ser. (ret.); M.P. '67-71.
- Clancarty, E. (*Le Poer Trench*), 1868.
- Clanwilliam, E. (*Meade*), 1873; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Clarendon, E. (*Villiers*), 1846, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Herts.
- L Clifden, V. (*Agar-Robartes*), 1844; Barr.; Lord-Lieut. Cambs.; M.P. '80-82.
- Clifford of Chudleigh, L. (*Clifford*), 1851; Barrister.
- Clinton, L. (*Hepburn-Stuart-Forbes-Trevisius*), 1863.
- *Clonbrock, L. (*Dillon*), 1834, K.P., P.C. (I.); Lord-Lieut. Galway.
- Cloncurry, L. (*Lawless*), 1840.
- Cobham, V. (*Lyttelton*), 1842; Railway Commr.; Dep. Chm. Gt. W. Ry.; M.P. '68-74.
- Colchester, L. (*Abbot*), 1842; Barrister.
- L Colebrooke, L. (*Colebrooke*), 1861, C.V.O.; Lord-in-Waiting; Capt. of the Gentlemen at Arms.
- L Coleridge, L. (*Coleridge*), 1851; Judge of the High Court; M.P. '85-94.
- Colville of Culcross, V. (*Colville*), 1854; Army (ret.); served Zulu War '79.
- Combermere, V. (*Stapleton-Cotton*), 1887.
- Congleton, L. (*Parnell*), 1890.
- Connaught, D. (*Prince of the Blood*), 1850; P.C., K.G., K.T., K.P., &c.; Field-Marshal; Gov.-Gen. Canada.
- Conyngham, M. (*Conyngham*), 1883.
- Cork and Orrery, E. (*Boyle*), 1861; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Cottenham, E. (*Pepys*), 1874.
- Cottesloe, L. (*Freemantle*), 1830; Barr.; late Chm. L.B. & S.C. Ry.; M.P. '76-85.
- L Courtney of Penwith (*Courtney*), 1832, P.C.; Chm. of Committee House of Commons, '86-92; M.P. '76-80.
- Courtown, E. (*Stopford*), 1823; Army (ret.).
- Coventry, E. (*Coventry*), 1838, P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Worcester.
- L Cowdray, L. (*Pearson*), 1856; Contractor; M.P. '95-10.
- Cowley, E. (*Wellesley*), 1866.
- Cranbrook, E. (*Gathorne-Hardy*), 1870.
- Cranworth, L. (*Gurdon*), 1877; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- L Craven, E. (*Chaven*), 1868; Capt. of the Yeomen of the Guard.
- Crawford, E. (*Lindsay*), 1847, K.T.; M.P. '74-80.
- Crawshaw, L. (*Brooks*), 1853.
- L Crewe, M. (*Crewe-Miles*), 1858, K.G., P.C.; Secretary of State for India.
- *Crofton, L. (*Crofton*), 1834.
- Cromer, E. (*Baring*), 1841, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., K.C.S.I., O.M., C.I.E., P.C.; Consul-General Egypt, '83-07.
- Cross, V. (*Cross*), 1823, G.C.B., P.C.; Sec. State India, '86-92; M.P. '57-62.
- Cumberland, D. (*Prince of the Blood*), 1845, K.G.; Colonel British Army.
- Curzon of Kedleston, E. (*Curzon*), 1859, P.C., K.C.I.E.; Viceroy India '98-05.
- Dalhousie, E. (*Ramsay*), 1878; Army (ret.).
- *Darnley, E. (*Bligh*), 1859.
- Dartmouth, E. (*Legge*), 1851, P.C.; M.P. '78-91; Lord-Lieut. Salop.
- Dartrey, E. (*Dawson*), 1842; Army (ret.); M.P. '65-68.
- De Clifford, L. (*Russell*), 1907; Minor.
- De Freyne, L. (*French*), 1855.
- Delamere, L. (*Cholmondeley*), 1870; unoff. memb. Legis. Coun. East. Afri. Pro.
- De la Warr, E. (*Sackville*), 1869; Army (ret.); served S.A.

- De L'Isle and Dudley, L. (*Sidney*), 1853; Army (ret.).
- De Mauley, L. (*Ponsonby*), 1843; Army (ret.).
- Denbigh, E. (*Fielding*), 1859, C.V.P.; Army (ret.); served Egypt '82.
- L** Denman, L. (*Denman*), 1874, K.C.V.O.; P.C.; Gov.-Gen. Australia.
- De Ramsey, Lord (*Fellowes*), 1848; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Deramore, L. (*de Yerburch-Bateson*), 1865.
- Derby, E. (*Stanley*), 1865, C.B., G.C.V.O., P.C.; Post-Master Gen. '03-05; Army (ret.).
- Derwent, L. (*Bempde-Johnstone*), 1829; Army (ret.); M.P. '69-80.
- Desart, E. (*Cuffe*), K.C.B.; Barr.; Member Hague Court; Late Dir. Public Prosecutions.
- De Saumarez, L. (*Saumarez*), 1843; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Desborough, L. (*Grenfell*), 1855, K.C.V.O.; Chm. Thames Conserv. Bd.; M.P. '00-05.
- *De Vesel, V. (*Vesey*), 1881; Army.
- De Villiers, L. (*Villiers*), 1842, K.C.M.G.; Chief Justice Cape Colony; President Legislative Council.
- Devon, E. (*Courtenay*), 1870.
- L** Devonport, L. (*Kearley*), 1856, P.C.; Chm. Port of London Authority; Parly. Sec. Board of Trade '05-09; M.P. '92-10.
- Devonshire, D. (*Cavendish*), 1868, P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Derbyshire; Fin. Sec. Treas. '03-05.
- Digby, L. (*Digby*), 1846; Army (ret.); M.P. '76-85.
- Donegall, M. (*Chichester*), 1903.
- Donoughmore, E. (*Hely-Hutchinson*), 1875, K.C.M.G., Chairman of Committees.
- Dormer, L. (*Dormer*), 1862; Late Sec. to Egyptian Minister of Finance.
- Downe, V. (*Dawney*), 1844, K.C.V.O., C.I.E.; Army (ret.).
- Downshire, M. (*Hill*), 1871.
- Ducie, E. (*Moreton*), 1827, G.C.V.O., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Glos.
- Dudley, E. (*Ward*), 1867, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., P.C.; Gov. Australia '08-11.
- Dufferin and Ava, M. (*Hamilton-Temple-Blackwood*), 1866; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- *Dunalley, L. (*Prettie*), 1851; Lord-Lieut. Tipperary.
- *Dunboyne, L. (*Butler*), 1844; Barr.; formerly Master Supreme Court.
- Dundonald, E. (*Cochrane*), 1852, K.C.V.O., C.B.; Army (ret.); served Soudan and S.A.
- Dunedin, L. (*Murray*), 1849, K.C.V.O., P.C.; Ld. Justice Gen. and Ld. Pres. Ct. Session Scotland; M.P. '91-05.
- Dunleath, L. (*Mulholland*), 1854; Army (ret.); M.P. '85-95.
- Dunmore, E. (*Murray*), 1871, M.V.O., V.C.; Army; served Egypt, N.W. Frontier, S.A.
- Dunraven and Mount-Earl, E. (*Wyndham-Quin*), 1841, K.P., C.M.G., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Limerick; Under-Sec. Colonies '95-00.
- Durham, Bp. (*Moule*), 1841, D.D.; Consec. '01.
- L** Durham, E. (*Lambton*), 1855; Army (ret.); Lord-Lieut. Durham.
- Dynevor, L. (*Rice*), 1873; M.P. '10-11.
- Ebury, L. (*Grosvenor*), 1834; Army (ret.). M.P. '65-74.
- Effingham, E. (*Howard*), 1866.
- Egerton, L. (*Egerton*), 1845; M.P. '83-05.
- Eglintoun and Winton, E. (*Montgomerie*), 1848; Army (ret.); Lord-Lieut. Ayrshire.
- Egmont, E. (*Perceval*), 1853; Natal Civil Service (ret.).
- Eldon, E. (*Scott*), 1845.
- L** Elgin and Kincardine, E. (*Bruce*), 1849, K.G., G.C.I.E., P.C.; Sec. State Colonies '05-08; Lord-Lieut. Fifeshire.
- Elibank, V. (*Murray*), 1840; Navy (ret.); served China Expedition 1860.
- Ellenborough, L. (*Law*), 1841; Navy (ret.); served China '57, Ashanti '73.
- Ellesmere, E. (*Egerton*), 1847.
- Elphinstone, L. (*Elphinstone*), 1869; Late Commr. Bd. Manufacturers, Scotland.
- Ely, M. (*Loftus*), 1851.
- Emly, L. (*Monseil*), 1858; Lord-Lieut. Ireland, '82-85.
- L** Emmott, L. (b. 1861), Under Secretary for the Colonies.
- Enniskillen, E. (*Cole*), 1845, K.P.; Army (ret.); M.P. '80-85.
- Erne, E. (*Crichton*), 1839, K.P., M.V.P., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Fermanagh; Lord-Treas. '76-80.
- Erroll, E. (*Hay*), 1852, K.T., C.B.; Brig.-General.
- Erskine, L. (*Erskine*), 1841; Barr.; Army (ret.).
- Esher, V. (*Brett*), 1852, G.C.V.O., G.C.B.; Dep. Gov. and Const. Windsor Castle; M.P. '80-85.
- Essex, E. (*Capell*), 1857; Army (ret.).
- Estcourt, L. (*Sotheran Estcourt*), 1839; M.P. '74-85.
- L** Eversley, L. (*Shaw-Lefevre*), 1832, P.C.; Barr.; Pres. Loc. Gov. Bd. '94-95; M.P. '63-85, '86-95.
- Exeter, Bp. (*Robertson*), 1853, D.D.; Consec. '03.
- Exeter, M. (*Cecil*), 1876.
- Exmouth, V. (*Pellew*), 1890.
- Faber, L. (*Faber*), 1847; Banker; Chm. Yorkshire Post; Dir. L. & N.W. Ry.; M.P. '01-05.
- **Falkland, V. (*Cary*), 1845.
- Falmouth, V. (*Boscawen*), 1847, C.B., K.C.V.O.; Army (ret.); served Egypt '82, Nile '84.
- Farnham, L. (*Maxwell*), 1879; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Farquhar, L. (*Farquhar*), 1844, G.C.V.O., P.C.; Lord-in-Waiting; M.P. '95-98.
- L** Farrer, L. (*Farrer*), 1859; Late Inspector Egyptian Railways.
- Ferrers, E. (*Shirley*), 1847.
- Feversham, E. (*Duncombe*), 1829; M.P. '52-67.
- Fife, D. (*Duff*), 1849, K.G., K.T., K.C.V.O., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. London; M.P. '74-79.
- Fingall, E. (*Plunkett*), 1859, P.C.; served S.A.
- Fisher, L. (*Fisher*), 1841, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., O.M.; Late First Sea Lord.
- Fitzhardinge, L. (*Berkeley*), 1830; M.P. '62-65.
- L** Fitzmaurice, L. (*Fitzmaurice*), 1846, P.C.; Late Chancellor of the Duchy.
- Fitzwilliam, E. (*Wentworth-Fitzwilliam*), 1872; M.P. '95-02; served S.A.
- Foley, L. (*Foley*), 1852.
- Forester, L. (*Weld-Forester*), 1842; M.P.
- Fortescue, E. (*Fortescue*), 1852; Lord-Lieut. and Chm. C.C. Devon; M.P. '81-92.
- L** Furness, L. (*Furness*), 1852; Shipowner;

- Member Port London Authority; M.P. '90-95, '00-10.
 Gage, V. (*Gage*), 1854.
 Gainsborough, E. (*Noel*), 1850; Army (ret.).
 Galloway, E. (*Stewart*), 1836; Army (ret.); served Crimea and Indian Mutiny.
 Galway, V. (*Monckton-Arundell*), 1844, C.B.; M.P. '72-85.
 Gardner, L. (*Disputed succession*).
 Gerard, L. (*Gerard*), 1883; Army.
 Gifford, L. (*Gifford*), 1857.
 L Gladstone, V. (*Gladstone*), 1854, P.C.; Gov.-General Union of South Africa.
 L Glantawe, L. (*Jenkins*), 1835; M.P. '82-86, '95-00.
 Glanusk, L. (*Bailey*), 1864, D.S.O.; Army (ret.); served S.A.; Lord-Lieut. Brecon.
 Glasgow, E. (*Boyle*), 1833, G.C.M.G.; Navy (ret.); Gov.-General New Zealand '92-97.
 L Glenconner, L. (*Tennant*), 1859; Ld. High Commr. Gen. Assembly Church Scotland.
 Gloucester, Bp. (*Gibson*), 1848, D.D.; Consec. '05.
 Gorell, L. (*Barnes*), 1848, P.C.; Late Judge in the Supreme High Court.
 Gormanston, V. (*Preston*), 1879.
 Goschen, V. (*Goschen*), 1866; Army (ret.); served S.A.; M.P. '95-05.
 Gosford, E. (*Acheson*), 1841, K.P.; Lord-Lieut. Armagh.
 Gough, V. (*Gough*), 1849, K.C.V.O.; Dipl. Ser.
 Grafton, D. (*Fitzroy*), 1821, K.G., C.B.; Army (ret.), served in Crimea.
 L Granard, E. (*Forbes*), 1874, P.C.; Master of the Horse; served S.A. War.
 Grantley, L. (*Norton*), 1855.
 L Granville, E. (*Leveson-Gower*), 1872; Dipl. Ser.
 Grenfell, L. (*Grenfell*), 1841, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C. (I.); Field-Marshal; Gov. Malta '99-03.
 Greville, L. (*Greville*), 1871; Army (ret.), served Matabeleland '97-98.
 Grey, E. (*Grey*), 1851, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., G.C.B., P.C.; Gov.-Gen. Canada '04; M.P. '80-85.
 Grey de Ruthyn, L. (*Clifton*), 1858.
 L Grimthorpe, L. (*Beckett*), 1856; Banker (ret.); M.P. '85-05.
 Guilford, E. (*North*), 1876.
 Gwydyr, L. (*Burrell*), 1841; Army (ret.).
 **Haddington, E. (*Baillie-Hamilton-Arden*), 1827, K.T.; Lord-Lieut. Haddington.
 L Haldane, V. (*Haldane*), 1856, P.C.; Secretary of State for War.
 Haldon (*Palk*), 1869; Army (ret.), served South Africa.
 Halifax, V. (*Wood*), 1839; Ecclesiastical Commissioner for England '86.
 Halsbury, E. (*Giffard*), 1825, P.C.; Lord Chancellor '87-92, '95-05.
 Hamilton and Brandon, D. (*Douglas-Hamilton*), 1862; Navy (ret.).
 L Hamilton of Dalzell, L. (*Hamilton*), 1872, K.T., C.V.O.; Army (ret.); Lord-in-Waiting.
 Hampden, V. (*Brand*), 1869; Army (ret.); served S.A.
 Hampton, L. (*Pakington*), 1883; Army.
 Hardinge, V. (*Hardinge*), 1857; Army (ret.); served Nile Expedition, 1885.
 Hardinge of Penshurst, L. (*Hardinge*), 1858, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., C.V.O., I.S.O., P.C.; Viceroy of India.
 Hardwicke, E. (*Yorke*), 1869; Lieut. Army Motor Reserve.
 Harewood, E. (*Lascelles*), 1846, K.C.V.O.; Army (ret.); Lord-Lieut. W.R. Yorks.
 Harlech, L. (*Ormsby-Gore*), 1855; Lord-Lieut. Leitrim; M.P. '01-04.
 Harrington, E. (*Stanhope*), 1844.
 Harris, L. (*Harris*), 1851, G.C.I.E., G.C.S.I.; Gov. Bombay '90-95.
 Harrowby, E. (*Ryder*), 1864; Banker (Coutts); M.P. '98-00.
 Hastings, L. (*Astley*), 1882; Army.
 Hatherton, L. (*Littleton*), 1842, C.M.G.; Army (ret.).
 L Haversham, L. (*Hayter*), 1835, P.C.; Fin. Sec. War Office '82-85; M.P. '65-68, '73-85.
 Hawke, L. (*Hawke*), 1860.
 Headfort, M. (*Taylor*), 1878; Army (ret.).
 L *Headley, L. (*Winn*), 1845.
 L Hemphill, L. (*Hemphill*), 1853; Barrister.
 Heneage, L. (*Heneage*), 1840, P.C.; M.P. '65-68, '80-82, '93-95; Chancellor of the Duchy '86.
 Henley, L. (*Henley*), 1849; Dipl. Service.
 Henniker, L. (*Henniker-Major*), 1872; Army (ret.); served N.W. Frontier, '97-98.
 Hereford, Bp. (*Percival*), 1834, D.D.; Consec. '95.
 Hereford, V. (*Devereux*), 1848.
 L Herschell, L. (*Herschell*), 1878, M.V.O.; Lord-in-Waiting.
 Hertford, M. (*Seymour*), 1843, C.B., P.C.; Army (ret.); Lord-Lieut. Warwickshire.
 Heytesbury, L. (*Holmes-a-Court-Holmes*), 1863; Army; served S.A.
 Hill, V. (*Clegg-Hill*), 1863; Army (ret.).
 Hillingdon, L. (*Mills*), 1855; Banker (Glyn, Mills & Co.); M.P. '85-92.
 Hindlip, L. (*Allsopp*), 1877; Army (ret.).
 L Holden, L. (*Holden*), 1833; M.P. '85-86, '92-00.
 Holm Patrick, L. (*Hamilton*), 1886; Army.
 Home, E. (*Douglas-Home*), 1834, K.T.; Lord-Lieut. Lanarkshire.
 Hood, V. (*Hood*), 1868; Army (ret.); served Ashanti and S.A.
 Hothfield, L. (*Tufton*), 1844; Lord-Lieut. Westmorland.
 Howard de Walden, L. (*Ellis*), 1880; Army; served S.A.
 Howard of Glossop, L. (*Fitzalan-Howard*), 1859.
 Howe, E. (*Curzon-Howe*), 1861, G.C.V.O.; Lord-in-Waiting '00-03; M.P. '85-00.
 Huntingdon, E. (*Hastings*), 1868; Army (ret.).
 Huntly, M. (*Gordon*), 1847, P.C.
 Hynton, L. (*Joliffe*), 1862; Dipl. Ser. (ret.); M.P. '95-99.
 Iddesleigh, E. (*Northcote*), 1845; Commr. and Chm. Bd. Inland Revenue '77-92.
 Ilchester, E. (*Fox-Strangways*), 1874; Late Assist. Priv. Sec. to Sec. of State, India.
 L Ilkeston, L. (*Foster*), 1840, P.C., M.D.; Sec. Local Govt. Board, '92-95; M.P. '87-10.
 L Inchcape, L. (*Mackay*), 1862; Dir. Suez Canal and Nat. Prov. Bank England.
 *Inchiquin, L. (*O'Brien*), 1864.
 Inverclyde, L. (*Burns*), 1864; Director of Cunard S.S. Co.; Lord-Lieut. Dumbar-ton.
 L Islington, L. (*Dickson-Poynder*), 1866; K.C.M.G.; Gov. New Zealand; Army (ret.); served S.A.
 Iveagh, V. (*Guinness*), 1847, K.P., G.C.V.O.
 Jersey, E. (*Child-Villiers*), 1845, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C.; Gov. N.S. Wales '90-93.

- L Joicey, L. (*Joicey*), 1846; Colliery owner; M.P. '85-05.
- Kenmare, E. (*Brown*), 1860, C.V.O.; Lord-Lieut. Kerry.
- Kensington, L. (*Edwardes*), 1873; Army; served S.A.
- Kenyon, L. (*Kenyon*), 1864, K.C.V.O.; Lord-in-Waiting '00-05.
- Kesteven, L. (*Trollope*), 1851; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Kilbracken, L. (*Godley*), 1847, G.C.B.; Perm. Under-Sec. India '83-09.
- Killanin, L. (*Morris*), 1867; Barrister; Commr. Education Ireland.
- *Kilmorey, E. (*Needham*), 1842; M.P. '71-74.
- L Kimberley, E. (*Wodehouse*), 1848.
- Kinnaird, L. (*Kinnaird*), 1847; Lord High Commr. Ch. Scotland '07-10.
- Kinnear, L. (*Kinnear*), 1833; Judge of Court of Session, Scotland.
- Kinnoull, E. (*Hay*), 1855.
- Kinross, L. (*Balfour*), 1870; Advocate.
- Kintore, E. (*Keith-Falconer*), 1852, G.C.M.G., P.C.; Gov. S. Australia '89-95.
- Kitchener, V. (*Kitchener*), 1850, K.P., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., O.M., &c.; Field Marshal; British Agent-Consul-General, Egypt.
- Knaresborough, L. (*Meysey-Thompson*), 1845; Director N.E. Ry.; M.P. '85-86, '92-05.
- Knollys, V. (*Knollys*), 1837, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., P.C.; Private Sec. to H.M. the King.
- Knutsford, V. (*Holland*), 1825 G.C.M.G., P.C.; Barrister; Colonial Sec. '87-92.
- Lamington, L. (*Cochrane-Baillie*), 1860; G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E.; Army (ret.); Gov. Bombay '03-07.
- *Langford, L. (*Rowley*), 1848, K.C.V.O.; Army (ret.).
- Lansdowne, M. (*Fitzmaurice*), 1845, K.G., G.C.S.I., P.C.; Foreign Sec. '00-05.
- Lathom, E. (*Boote-Wilbraham*), 1895; Minor.
- **Lauderdale, E. (*Maitland*), 1840; Army (ret.).
- Lawrence, L. (*Lawrence*), 1846; Barrister; Lord-in-Waiting '95-05.
- Leconfield, L. (*Wyndham*), 1872; Army (ret.); served S.A.
- Leeds, D. (*Osborne*), 1862; Treas. H.M. Household '95-96; M.P. '87-95.
- **Leven and Melville, E. (*Leslie-Melville*), 1886.
- Leicester, E. (*Coke*), 1848, G.C.V.O., C.M.G.; Army (ret.); served Egypt and S.A.; Lord-Lieut. Norfolk.
- Leigh, L. (*Leigh*), 1855, P.C.
- Leinster, D. (*Fitzgerald*), 1887.
- Leith of Fyvie, L. (*Forbes-Leith*), 1847; Navy (ret.).
- Leitrim, E. (*Clements*), 1879; Army (ret.); served S.A.; Lord-Lieut. Londonderry.
- Lichfield, Bp. (*Legge*), 1839; Consec. '91.
- Lilford, L. (*Powys*), 1863.
- Limerick, E. (*Pery*), 1863; Army (ret.).
- Lindley, L. (*Lindley*), (life peer), 1828, P.C., F.R.S., K.C.; formerly Judge of High Court and Lord of Appeal.
- Lindsey, E. (*Bertie*), 1861.
- Linlithgow, M. (*Hope*), 1887.
- Lister, L. (*Lister*), 1827, F.R.S., O.M., P.C.; Scientist; Surgeon.
- Listowel, E. (*Hare*), 1833, K.P.; Army (ret.); served Crimea; Lord-in-Waiting '80-81.
- Liverpool, Bp. (*Chavasse*), 1841; Con. '00.
- Liverpool, E. (*Foljambe*), 1870, M.V.O.; served S.A.; Comptr. of Household.
- Llandaff, V. (*Matthews*), 1826, P.C., K.C.; Home Sec. '86-92; M.P. '68-74, '86-95.
- Llandaff, Bp. (*Hughes*), 1847, D.D.; Consec. '05.
- Llangattock, L. (*Rolls*), 1837; M.P. '80-85.
- L Loch, L. (*Loch*), 1873, M.V.O., D.S.O.; Army; served Sudan and S.A.
- Londesborough, E. (*Denison*), 1864, K.C.V.O.
- London, Bp. (*Winnington-Ingram*), 1858, D.D., P.C.; Consec. '97; transl. '01.
- Londonderry, M. (*Vane-Tempest-Stewart*), 1852, K.G., P.C., G.C.V.O., C.B., V.D.; Lord President of the Council, '03-05.
- Longford, E. (*Pakenham*), 1864, K.P., M.V.O.; Army; Lord-Lieut. Longford.
- Lonsdale, E. (*Lowther*), 1857; Army; served S.A.
- L Loreburn, E. (*Reid*), 1846, G.C.M.G., P.C.; Lord Chancellor.
- Lothian, M. (*Kerr*), 1874.
- Loudoun, E. (*Abney-Hastings*), 1855.
- Lovat, L. (*Fraser*), 1871, C.B., K.C.V.O., D.S.O.; Army; served S.A.
- Lovelace, E. (*King*), 1865; Army; (ret.).
- *Lucan, E. (*Bingham*), 1830, K.P.; Army (ret.); served Crimea; Lord-Lieut. Mayo.
- L Lucas, L. (*Herbert*), 1876; Parly. Under-Sec. to the Bd. of Agriculture.
- Ludlow, L. (*Lopes*), 1865; Barrister.
- Lurgan, L. (*Brownlow*), 1858, K.C.V.O.; Army.
- Lytton, E. (*Lytton*), 1876.
- L Lyveden, L. (*Vernon*), 1857.
- Macclesfield, E. (*Parker*), 1888.
- L Macdonnell, L. (*MacDonnell*), 1844, G.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., P.C.; Perm. Under-Sec. Ireland '02-08.
- Macnaghten, L. (*Macnaghten*) (life peer), 1830, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C.; Lord of Appeal.
- Magheramorne, L. (*M'Garel-Hogg*), 1863.
- Malmesbury, E. (*Harris*), 1872.
- Manchester, D. (*Montagu*), 1877, P.C.; Army (ret.).
- Manchester, Bp. (*Knox*), 1847, D.D., Consec. '94; transl. '03.
- Manners, L. (*Manners*), 1852; Army (ret.).
- Mansfield, E. (*Murray*), 1864; Army (ret.).
- Manvers, E. (*Pierrepont*), 1845; Army (ret.); M.P. '85-95, '98-00.
- **Mar. E. (*Goodeve-Erskine*), 1836.
- **Mar and Kellie, E. (*Erskine*), 1865, K.T.; Lord-Lieut. Clackmannan.
- L Marchamley, L. (*Whiteley*), 1855; P.C.; Parly. Sec. to Treasury '05-08.
- Marlborough, D. (*Spencer-Churchill*), 1871, K.G., P.C.; Under-Sec. Colonies '03-05.
- Masham, L. (*Cunliffe-Lister*), 1856; Manufacturer.
- Massereene, V. (*Skeffington*), 1873, D.S.O.; Army; served South Africa.
- *Massy, L. (*Massy*), 1835.
- *Mayo, E. (*Bourke*), 1851, K.P., P.C. (I.); Army (ret.).
- Meath, E. (*Brabazon*), 1841, K.P., P.C. (I.); Dipl. Ser.; Lord-Lieut. Dublin.
- Melville, V. (*Dundas*), 1843, I.S.O.; Dipl. Ser.
- Mersey, L. (*Bigham*), 1840, K.C., P.C.; Judge of High Court; M.P. '95-97.
- Merthyr, L. (*Lewis*), 1837; Coalowner, &c. (ret.).
- Methuen, L. (*Methuen*), 1845, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., C.M.G.; Field-Marshal; Gov. of Natal.

- Michelham, L. (*de Stern*), 1853; Merchant.
- Middleton, L. (*Willoughby*), 1844; Army (ret.).
- Middleton, V. (*Brodrick*), 1856, P.C.; Sec. State India '03-05.
- Midlothian, E. (*Primrose*), 1847, K.G., K.T., V.D.; Prime Minister '94-95.
- Milner, V. (*Milner*), 1854, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C.; High Commr. South Africa '97-05.
- Minto, E. (*Elliot*), 1845, K.T., G.C.M.G., P.C.; Viceroy India '05-10; Army (ret.); served Afghanistan.
- Monck, V. (*Monck*), 1849; Army (ret.); served Egypt.
- Moncreiff, L. (*Moncreiff*), 1843; Vicar of Tamworth.
- Monk Bretton, L. (*Dodson*), 1869; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- Monkswell, L. (*Collier*), 1875; Foreign Office.
- Monson, L. (*Monson*), 1868; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- Montagu of Beaulieu, L. (*Douglas-Scott-Montagu*), 1866; M.P. '92-05.
- Monteagle of Brandon, L. (*Spring-Rice*), 1849, K.P.
- Montrose, D. (*Graham*), 1852, K.T.; Army (ret.); served S.A.; Lord-Lieut. Stirling.
- Moray, E. (*Stuart*), 1855.
- Morley, E. (*Parker*), 1877.
- L Morley of Blackburn, V. (*Morley*), 1838; P.C., O.M.; Lord President of the Council.
- **Morton, E. (*Douglas*), 1844.
- Mostyn, L. (*Lloyd-Mostyn*), 1856.
- Mount Edgcumbe, L. (*Edgcumbe*), 1832; G.C.V.O., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Cornwall.
- L Mountgarret, L. (*Butler*), 1844.
- Mount Stephen, L. (*Stephen*), 1829, G.C.V.O.; Late Pres. Canadian Pacific Railway.
- Mowbray, L. (*Stourton*), 1867.
- Muncaster, L. (*Pennington*), 1834; Army (ret.); served Crimea; M.P. '72-80, '85-92.
- Munster, E. (*Fitzclarence*), 1862.
- *Muskerry, L. (*Deane-Morgan*), 1854.
- Napier and Ettrick, L. (*Napier*), 1846; Dipl. Service.
- Napier of Magdala, L. (*Napier*), 1845; Army (ret.); served Abyssinia '67.
- Nelson, E. (*Nelson*), 1823.
- Newcastle, D. (*Pelham-Clinton*), 1864.
- Newlands, L. (*Hozier*), 1851; Dipl. Ser. (ret.); M.P. '86-06.
- Newton, L. (*Legh*), 1857; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- Norfolk, D. (*Fitzalan-Howard*), 1847, K.G., G.C.V.O., P.C.; Earl Marshal; Postmaster-General, '93-00.
- Normanby, M. (*Phipps*), 1846; Canon of Windsor '91-07.
- Normanton, E. (*Agar*), 1865.
- North, L. (*North*), 1836; Army (ret.).
- L Northampton, M. (*Compton*), 1851; Dipl. Ser. (ret.); M.P. '85-86, '89-97.
- Northbourne, L. (*James*), 1846; M.P. '74-93.
- Northbrook, E. (*Baring*), 1850; Army (ret.); M.P. '80-85, '86-92.
- Northcliffe, L. (*Harmsworth*), 1865; Newspaper proprietor.
- **Northesk, E. (*Carnegie*), 1865.
- Northumberland, D. (*Percy*), 1846, K.G., F.R.S., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Northumberland; M.P. '68-85.
- Norton, L. (*Adderley*), 1846; Late Assist.-Inspector Local Govt. Board.
- L Nunburnholme, L. (*Wilson*), 1875; served S.A.; Lord-Lieut. W.R. Yorks; M.P. '06-07.
- O'Brien, L. (*O'Brien*), 1842; Lord Chief Justice of Ireland.
- O'Hagan, L. (*O'Hagan*), 1882; Army.
- O'Neill, L. (*O'Neill*), 1839; M.P. '63-80.
- Onslow, E. (*Onslow*), 1876; Dipl. Service.
- *Oranmore and Browne, L. (*Browne*), 1861.
- Orford, E. (*Walpole*), 1854; Navy (ret.).
- Ormathwaite, L. (*Walsh*), 1827; M.P. '65-80; Army (ret.).
- Ormonde, M. (*Butler*), 1844, K.P.; Army (ret.).
- Oxford, Bp. (*Gore*), 1853, D.D.; Consec. '01; transl. '11.
- L Peckover, L. (*Peckover*), 1830; Banker (ret.).
- Peel, V. (*Peel*), 1829, P.C.; Speaker House of Commons '84-95.
- Pembroke and Montgomery, E. (*Herbert*), 1853, G.C.V.O., P.C.; formerly Lord of the Treasury; M.P. '86-95.
- Penrhyn, L. (*Douglas-Pennant*), 1864; Army (ret.); M.P. '95-00.
- L Pentland, L. (*Sinclair*), 1860, P.C.; Army (ret.); served Soudan; Secretary for Scotland.
- Peterborough, Bp. (*Carr-Glyn*), 1843, D.D.; Consec. '97.
- Petre, L. (*Petre*), 1890.
- L Pirrie, L. (*Pirrie*), 1847, K.P., P.C.; Ship-builder and Engineer.
- Playfair, L. (*Playfair*), 1849; Army (ret.).
- Plunket, L. (*Plunket*), 1864, G.C.M.G., K.C.V.O.; Dipl. Ser. (ret.); Gov. N.Z. '04-10.
- Plymouth, E. (*Windsor-Clive*), 1857, C.B., P.C.; First Commr. Works '02-05; Lord-Lieut. Glamorgan.
- Poltimore, L. (*Bamfylde*), 1859; Army (ret.).
- Portland, D. (*Cavendish-Bentinck*), 1857, K.G., G.C.V.O., P.C.; Army (ret.); Master of the Horse '86-92.
- Portman, V. (*Portman*), 1829; M.P. '52-85.
- Portsmouth, E. (*Wallop*), 1856; Eccles. Commr.; Under-Sec. War '05-08; M.P. '80-91.
- Poulett, E. (*Poulett*), 1883.
- Powerscourt, V. (*Winfield*), 1880, M.V.O.; Army (ret.); Lord-Lieut. Wicklow.
- Powis, E. (*Herbert*), 1862; Lord-Lieut. Salop.
- Radnor, E. (*Pleydell-Bouverie*), 1868; Army (ret.); served S.A.; M.P. '92-00.
- Raglan, L. (*Somersets*), 1857, C.B.; Gov. Isle of Man; Army (ret.).
- Ranfurlly, E. (*Knox*), 1856, G.C.M.G., P.C. (I.); Gov. New Zealand '97-04.
- *Rathdonnell, L. (*McClintock-Bunbury*), 1848; Army (ret.).
- Rathmore, L. (*Plunket*), 1838, K.C., P.C.; First Commr. Works '85-86, '86-92.
- Ravensworth, L. (*Liddell*), 1837; Civil Ser.
- Rayleigh, L. (*Strutt*), 1842, F.R.S., O.M., P.C.; Scientist; Chancellor Cambridge University.
- L Reay, L. (*Mackay*), 1839, K.T., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., P.C.; Gov. Bombay '85-90; Lord-Lieut. Roxburghshire.
- Redesdale, L. (*Freeman-Mitford*), 1837, G.C.V.O., K.C.B.; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- L Rendel, L. (*Rendel*), 1834; Barrister; M.P. '80-04; Pres. Univ. College, Wales.
- Revelstoke, L. (*Baring*), 1863, C.B., P.C., G.C.V.O.; Banker; Rec.-Gen. Duchy Cornwall.

- L** Ribblesdale, L. (*Lister*), 1854, P.C.
 Richmond and Gordon (*Gordon Lennox*),
 K.G., G.C.V.O., C.B.; Army; served
 S.A.; Lord-Lieut. Elgin and Banff.
 Ridley, V. (*Ridley*), 1874; M.P. '00-04.
 Ripon, M. (*Robinson*), 1852, G.C.V.O.;
 M.P. '74-80.
 Ritchie, L. (*Ritchie*), 1866; Member of
 Port of London Authority.
 Roberts, E. (*Roberts*), 1832, K.G., K.P.,
 P.C., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., O.M.,
 V.C., V.D.; Field-Marshal; Late Com-
 mander-in-Chief.
L Robson, L. (*Robson*) (life peer), 1852,
 P.C.; Lord of Appeal.
 Rodney, L. (*Rodney*), 1891; Minor.
 Rollo, L. (*Rollo*), 1835.
 Romilly, L. (*Romilly*), 1899; Minor.
 Romney, E. (*Marshall*), 1864; Army (ret.).
 Rosmead, L. (*Robinson*), 1866; Army
 (ret.); served S.A.
 *Rosse, E. (*Parsons*), 1873; Army (ret.);
 served S.A.
 Rosslyn, E. (*St. Clair Erskine*), 1869; Army
 (ret.).
 Rossmore, L. (*Westenra*), 1853; Lord-
 Lieut. Monaghan.
L Rotherham, L. (*Holland*), 1849; Chm. Fine
 Cotton Spinners' Asso.; M.P. '92-95,
 '99-10.
 **Rothes, E. (*Leslie*), 1877.
L Rowallan, L. (*Corbett*), 1856; M.P. '85-11.
 Roxburghe, D. (*Innes-Ker*), 1876, K.T.,
 M.V.O.; Army (ret.); served S.A.
L Russell, E. (*Russell*), 1865; Lieut. Army
 Motor Reserve.
 Rutland, D. (*Manners*), 1852, C.B.; Lord-
 Lieut. Leices.; M.P. '88-95.
 Sackville, L. (*Sackville-West*), 1867.
 St. Albans, Bp. (*Jacob*), 1844, D.D.; Con-
 sec. '96; transl. '03.
 St. Albans, D. (*Beaucherk*), 1870, P.C.
 St. Aldwyn, V. (*Hicks-Beach*), 1837, P.C.;
 Chanc. of Exchequer '85-86, '95-02.
 St. Asaph, Bp. (*Edwards*), 1848, D.D.;
 Consec. '89.
 St. Audries, L. (*Acland-Hood*), 1853, P.C.;
 Parly. Sec. Treasury '02-06; Army
 (ret.); served Egypt '82; M.P. '92-11.
 St. David's, Bp. (*Owen*), 1854; Consec.
 '97.
L St. David's, L. (*Philipps*), 1860; Barrister;
 M.P. '88-94, '98-08.
 St. Germans, E. (*Eliot*), 1890.
 St. John of Bletso, L. (*St. John*), 1844;
 Lord-Lieut. Beds.
 St. Leonards, L. (*Sugden*), 1890.
 St. Levan, L. (*St. Aubyn*), 1857, C.B.,
 C.V.O.; Army (ret.); served Suakin
 and Nile.
 St. Oswald, L. (*Winn*), 1857; Army (ret.);
 served Soudan; M.P. '85-92.
 St. Vincent, V. (*Jervis*), 1859; Army
 (ret.).
 Salisbury, M. (*Cecil*), 1861, C.B., G.C.V.O.,
 C.B., A.D.C., P.C.; Pres. Bd. Trade '05.
 **Saltoun, L. (*Fraser*), 1851; Army (ret.).
 Sanderson, L. (*Sanderson*), 1841, G.C.B.,
 K.C.M.G., I.S.O.; Dipl. Service.
L Sandhurst, L. (*Mansfield*), 1855, G.C.S.I.,
 G.C.I.E., P.C.; Gov. Bombay '95-00.
 Sandwich, E. (*Montagu*), 1839, K.C.V.O.;
 Army (ret.); Lord-Lieut. and Chm. C.C.
 Hunts.; M.P. '76-84.
 Sandys, L. (*Sandys*), 1855; Stockbroker
 (ret.).
 Savile, L. (*Lumley-Savile*), 1853, K.C.V.O.;
 Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- L** Saye and Selo, L. (*Twisleton-Wykeham-
 Fiennes*), 1858; Army (ret.); served Zulu-
 land.
 Scarborough, E. (*Lumley*), 1857, C.B.;
 Army (ret.).
 Scarsdale, L. (*Curzon*), 1831; Rector of
 Kedleston.
 Seafeld, L. (*Ogilvie-Grant*), 1876; Army.
 Seaton, L. (*Colborne*), 1854; Army
 (ret.).
 Sefton, E. (*Molyneux*), 1854; Master of
 the Horse '05-07.
 Selborne, E. (*Palmer*), 1859, K.G.,
 G.C.M.G., P.C.; High Commr. S.A.
 '05-10.
 Selby, V. (*Gully*), 1867.
 **Sempill, L. (*Forbes-Sempill*), 1863;
 Army (ret.); served S.A.
 Shaftesbury, E. (*Ashley-Cooper*), 1869,
 K.C.V.O.; Chamberlain to H.M. the
 Queen.
 Shannon, E. (*Boyle*), 1897; Minor.
L Shaw, L. (*Shaw*), 1850, P.C.; Lord of
 Appeal.
L Sheffield, L. (*Stanley*), 1839, P.C.; Barris-
 ter; M.P. '80-85.
 Sherborne, L. (*Dutton*), 1840; Vicar of
 Bilbury.
 Shrewsbury and Talbot, E. (*Talbot*), 1860,
 K.C.V.O.
L Shuttleworth, L. (*Kaye-Shuttleworth*),
 1844, P.C.; Sec. to Admiralty '92-5;
 M.P. '69-80, '85-02.
 Sidmouth, V. (*Addington*), 1824, F.Z.S.;
 Navy (ret.).
 **Sinclair, L. (*St. Clair*), 1831; Army (ret.);
 served Crimea and Indian Mutiny.
 Sligo, M. (*Browne*), 1831; Ind. Civ. Ser.
 (ret.).
 Somers, L. (*Cocks*), 1887; Army.
 Somerset, D. (*St. Maur*), 1846; Army
 (ret.).
 Soudes, E. (*Miles*), 1866; Army (ret.);
 served South Africa.
 Southampton, L. (*Fitzroy*), 1867; Army
 (ret.).
 Southesk, E. (*Carnegie*), 1854; LL.D.
L Southwark, L. (*Causton*), 1843; Paymaster-
 Gen. '05-10; M.P. '80-85, '88-10.
 Southwell, Bp. (*Hoskins*), 1851; Consec.
 '01; transl. '04.
L Spencer, E. (*Spencer*), 1857, P.C.; Lord
 Chamberlain; Lord-Lieut. Northants.
 Stafford, L. (*Stafford-Jerningham*), 1833.
 Stair, E. (*Dalrymple*), 1848; Army (ret.);
 Lord High Commr. Church of Scotland.
 Stalbridge, L. (*Grosvenor*), 1837, P.C.;
 Navy (ret.); M.P. '61-86; Parly. Sec.
 Treas. '80-85.
 Stamford, E. (*Grey*), 1896; Minor.
 Stamfordham, L. (*Bigge*), 1849; Priv. Sec.
 H.M. the King; Army; served Zulu
 War.
 Stanhope, E. (*Stanhope*), 1880; Army.
 Stanmore L. (*Gordon*), 1829, G.C.M.G.;
 Gov. New Zealand, Ceylon, &c.; M.P.
 '54-57.
 Strachey, L. (b. 1861), late Parly. Sec.
 Board of Agriculture.
 Stradbroke, E. (*Rous*), 1862, C.B., C.V.O.,
 A.D.C., V.D.
 Strafford, E. (*Byng*), 1835; Chaplain to
 Speaker House of Commons '74-89.
 Strathcona and Mount Royal, L. (*Smith*),
 1820, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O.; Director
 Canadian Pacific Ry. Co.; High Commr.
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- Stratheden and Campbell, L. (*Campbell*), 1829; Bengal Civil Service (ret.).
- Strathmore and Kinghorne, L. (*Bowes-Lyon*), 1855; Lord-Lieut. Forfar.
- Sudeley, L. (*Hanbury-Tracy*), 1840, P.C., F.R.S.; Navy (ret.); Barr.; M.P. '63-67.
- Suffield, L. (*Harbord*), 1830, P.C., G.C.V.O., K.C.B., A.D.C., V.D.
- Suffolk and Berkshire, E. (*Howard*), 1877; Army (ret.).
- Sutherland, D. (*Sutherland-Leveson-Gower*); Army (ret.); M.P. '74-86; Lord-Lieut. Sutherlandshire.
- Swansea, L. (*Vivian*), 1848.
- L** Swaythling, L. (*Montagu*), 1869; Banker.
- Talbot de Malahide, L. (*Talbot*), 1846; Army.
- Tankerville, E. (*Bennet*), 1852; Navy (ret.).
- Temple, R. (*Temple-Gore-Langton*), 1871; Diplomatic Service (ret.).
- Templemore, L. (*Chichester*), 1854; Army.
- *Templetown, V. (*Upton*), 1853.
- Tennyson, L. (*Tennyson*), 1852, P.C.; Gov.-Gen. Australia '02-03.
- L** Tenterden, L. (*Abbott*), 1865.
- Teynham, L. (*Roper-Curzon*), 1867.
- Thurlow, L. (*Cumming-Bruce*), 1838, P.C., F.R.S.; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- Tollemache, L. (*Tollemache*), 1883.
- **Torpichen, L. (*Sandilands*), 1846.
- Torrington, V. (*Byng*), 1886.
- Townshend, M. (*Townshend*), 1866.
- Tredegar, V. (*Morgan*), 1831; Army (ret.); served Crimea; Lord-Lieut. Monmouth; M.P. '58-75.
- Trevor, L. (*Hill-Trevor*), 1852; Army (ret.).
- Tweeddale, M. (*Hay*), 1826, K.T.; Bengal Civ. Ser. (ret.); M.P. '65-68.
- L** Tweedmouth, L. (*Marjoribanks*), 1874, M.V.O., D.S.O.; Army, served South Africa.
- Vaux of Harrowden, L. (*Mostyn*), 1860; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- *Ventry, L. (*Eveleigh de Moleyns*), 1828.
- Vernon, L. (*Venables-Vernon*), 1888; Dipl. Ser.
- Verulam, E. (*Grimston*), 1852; M.P. '85-92.
- Vivian, L. (*Vivian*), 1878; Army (ret.), served South Africa.
- Wakefield, Bp. (*Eden*), 1853; consec. '90, tr. '97.
- Waldegrave, E. (*Waldegrave*), 1851, P.C., V.D.; Chm. Lunacy Commission; Lord-in-Waiting '86-92, '93-96.
- Waleran, L. (*Walrond*), 1849, P.C., V.D.; Chancellor Duchy Lancaster '02-05; M.P. '80-05.
- Wales, Prince of, Prince of the Blood, 1894; K.G., Minor.
- Walsingham, L. (*de Grey*), 1843; M.P. '65-71.
- Wandsworth, L. (*Stern*), 1845; M.P. '91-95.
- Warwick and Brooke, E. (*Greville*), 1853; M.P. '79-85, '88-92; Lord-Lieut. Essex.
- Waterford, M. (*Waterford*), 1875, K.P.; Army, served South Africa.
- L** Weardale, L. (*Stanhope*), 1847; Navy (ret.); M.P. '86-92, '93-00, '04-06.
- L** Welby, L. (*Welby*), 1832, G.C.B.; Perm. Sec. '85-94; Civ. Ser. '56-94.
- Wellington, D. (*Wellesley*), 1849, K.G., G.C.V.O.; Army.
- Wemyss and March, E. (*Wemyss-Charteris-Douglas*), 1818, G.C.V.O.; M.P. '41-83.
- Wenlock, L. (*Lawley*), 1849, K.C.B., G.C.I.E., P.C.; Gov. Madras '91-95; High Steward of Hull.
- Westbury, L. (*Bethell*), 1852; Army (ret.).
- *Westmeath, E. (*Nugent*), 1870; Dipl. Ser. (ret.).
- Westminster, D. (*Grosvenor*), 1879; Army, served South Africa.
- Westmorland, E. (*Fane*), 1859; served S.A. War.
- Wharcliffe, E. (*Montagu-Stuart-Wortley-Mackenzie*), 1856; Navy (ret.).
- *Wicklow, E. (*Howard*), 1877; Army (ret.); served South Africa.
- L** Willingdon, L. (*Freeman-Thomas*), 1867; M.P. '00-10.
- Willoughby de Broke, L. (*Verney*), 1869; M.P. '96-00.
- Wilton, E. (*Egerton*), 1863; Army (ret.).
- L** Wimborne, L. (*Guest*), 1835.
- Winchester, Bp. (*Talbot*), 1844, D.D., K.G.; consec. '95, transl. '11.
- Winchester, M. (*Paulet*), 1852; Lord-Lieut. Hampshire.
- Winchilea and Nottingham, E. (*Finch-Hatton*), 1852.
- Wolseley, V. (*Wolseley*), 1833, K.P., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., O.M.; Field-Marshal; Commander-in-Chief '95-00.
- L** Wolverhampton, V. (*Fowler*), 1870.
- Wolverton, L. (*Glyn*), 1864; Banker.
- Worcester, Bp. (*Yeatman-Biggs*), 1841, D.D.; consec. '91, transl. '04.
- Wrottesley, L. (*Wrottesley*), 1873.
- Wynford, L. (*Best*), 1871; Army (ret.).
- Yarborough, E. (*Felham*), 1859, P.C.
- York, Archbp. (*Lang*), 1864, D.D., P.C.
- Zetland, M. (*Dundas*), 1844, K.T., P.C.; Lord-Lieut. Ireland '89-92.
- Zouche of Haryngworth, L. (*Curzon*), 1851; served in South Africa.

OBITUARY.

THE FOLLOWING MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS HAVE DIED SINCE LAST SESSION:—

Lord Churston.
 Earl of Ancaster.
 Lord Wrottesley.
 Lord Swaythling.
 Lord Collins.
 Lord Winterstoke.
 Earl Cawdor.
 Viscount Wolverhampton.
 Viscount Bangor.
 Marquess of Albesbury.
 Lord Airedale.

Earl of Carlisle.
 Lord Gifford.
 Lord Dynevor.
 Earl of Cranbrook.
 Lord Bellew.
 Lord James of Hereford.
 Earl of St. Germans.
 Lord Northcote.
 The Bishop of Oxford (Dr. Paget).
 The Bishop of Salisbury (Dr. John Wordsworth).

Earl of Onslow.

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VOTERS AT PARLIAMENTARY ELECTIONS.

IN COUNTIES AND BOROUGHs ALIKE.

1. Occupiers of lands or tenements worth £10 a year and upwards. An occupier is defined as "a person who as a fact actually uses the premises in question, either for the purpose of a dwelling-house or wholly or in part for the purpose of any trade, business, or profession."

2. Householders.

3. Lodgers, provided such voters occupy lodgings "being of a clear yearly value, if let unfurnished, of £10 and upwards."

4. Service Franchise. By this, Bank Managers, Schoolmasters, Station-masters, Caretakers, and others who occupy houses or rooms rent free on the property of their employers may vote, provided the employer also does not reside on the premises.

IN THE COUNTIES ONLY.

Owners of property may vote if they belong to one of the following classes:—

- The owner of a freehold worth 40s. a year which has been acquired by inheritance or by marriage. A beneficed clergyman is entitled to vote under this franchise;
- The owner of a freehold or copyhold worth £5 a year and upwards;
- The holder of a leasehold of not less than 60 years, if it is worth £5 a year;
- The holder of a leasehold of not less than 20 years, if it is worth £50 a year.

A man may vote as a freeholder for a county in respect of property in a borough (i.) when he owns but does not occupy the qualifying premises; (ii.) when he owns and occupies premises, not being his dwelling-house, of value between 40s. and £10 per year, *i.e.*, when the property is in his own occupation, but would not give him a vote for the borough. If a man has either of these qualifications, and in addition possesses an independent borough qualification, *e.g.*, if he is a householder, he may vote in both borough and county.

In Scotland there are no 40s. freeholders, and an owner of leasehold property may vote provided his leasehold is worth at least £10 a year, and is held for life or for a term of not less than 57 years. The other qualification

of the same kind is a leasehold for not less than 19 years which is worth £50 a year and upwards.

In Ireland a leasehold for life or for 60 years and upwards entitles its owner to a vote if his lands are worth at least £10 a year. A leasehold of not less than 14 years gives a vote if the lands are worth £20 a year and upwards.

Joint Owners.—Only one of these may now vote, unless—

- All were entitled to vote in 1884;
- Their interests were acquired by inheritance, or by marriage;
- They are partners in business on the land owned by them.

There is one small exception to the general principle that there are none who vote in boroughs as owners of property. The Reform Bill of 1832 allowed owners to vote not only in the counties, but in boroughs which are counties corporate. The Bill, however, only recognised four of these boroughs—Norwich, Bristol, Exeter, and Nottingham—and in these those who vote as owners of property must reside within seven miles of the city.

Two other classes of voters are:—

(1) **Graduates on the electoral roll of the Universities** of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, and London may vote at University Parliamentary elections, and there is also a similar qualification for graduates of the four Scottish Universities.

(2) **In the City of London freemen who are also liverymen of one of the City companies** may vote if they reside in the City or within 25 miles of the place of poll.

In other cities or boroughs freemen may vote if they reside in the city or borough, or within seven miles thereof, provided they owe this status to birth or to servitude.

Permanently disqualified for the Parliamentary vote are: (1) Women, (2) infants, (3) peers, (4) idiots and lunatics, (5) aliens.

The temporarily disqualified are: (1) Persons who have received parochial relief within 12 months, (2) bankrupts, (3) persons employed at elections, (4) convicted felons, (5) persons convicted of corrupt and illegal practices at elections.

One Man, One Vote.

The **Adult Suffrage Bill**, promoted by the People's Suffrage Federation, and introduced by Mr. Crawshay-Williams in the spring of 1911, proposed to give the franchise to every one of both sexes who is over 21 years of age. It provided that three months shall be the residential qualification, that plural voting shall be abolished, and that electoral officers shall be appointed to keep the register, which should be prepared not less often than once every three months.

Mr. Arthur Henderson introduced a Bill that went further than Mr. Crawshay-Williams'. It proposed to extend the franchise to all persons over 21 except lunatics, traitors, prisoners, or persons guilty of corrupt practices. It made four weeks the qualification, to count before any one of four registration days. It gave "one person, one vote," abolished University representation, and allowed an alternative vote when there were more than two candidates.

Registration Calendar.

ere are some dates, issued by the
eral Publication Department, for
guidance of Liberal Registration
committees:—

June 20th.—Ownership portion of
ister published by overseers.

Between June 20th and July 20th.—
al secretaries to examine rate-books,
ange committee meetings, and take
necessary steps to get ownership
ms made by all new Liberal owners.
July 20th.—Last day for sending in
ership claims.

After July 15th and before July 25th.
lodgers on the existing register, if
qualified, must send in 'Old
gers' Claims.'

August 1st.—Overseers publish: (a)
of ownership claimants; (b) list of
lodgers who have re-claimed; (c)
occupation lists.

Between August 1st and August 20th
possible before August 15th). Local
mittees to meet, and carefully
mine all the new lists, and to make
quiries, with a view to making (a)
ections to ownership electors; (b)
ections to ownership claimants; (c)
ections to old lodger claimants; (d)
ections to persons on new occupa-
ion lists either for household, £10, or
vice qualifications; (e) occupation
ms; (f) new lodger claims.

August 20th.—Last day for occupa-
tion and new lodger claims to reach
overseers. Last day for notices of
objection to be served on overseers and
on persons objected to.

August 25th.—Overseers publish lists
of ownership voters, ownership claim-
ants, occupiers, old lodgers objected to,
occupation and new lodger claims, and
deliver copies thereof on payment.

September 5th.—Last day for declara-
tions, either by owners as to their
address, or by occupiers as to any of
the particulars of their qualification,
to be sent in to Clerk of the County
Council in counties or of the Town
Council in boroughs.

**Between August 25th and September
8th.**—Local Committees ought (a) to
examine and enquire into all objections
and claims made by their opponents;
(b) to mark all the new claim and
objection lists with full information as
to politics, and correctness or other-
wise of particulars; (c) to mark up on
existing ownership list and on new
occupation lists any incorrect spelling,
printers' errors, &c.; and (d) to send
all these lists to the Divisional Secre-
tary, or to whoever will represent the
Liberal Party in the Revision Courts.

**Between September 8th and October
12th.**—Revision Courts held.

Are you on the Register?

ut it is not sufficient for a person
be qualified for a vote; he must be
the register, parliamentary or
ncipal, as the case may be, and this
not always an easy matter.

A freeholder or a copyholder must
w that he has been in actual posses-
sion of the property or has received
rents thereof for six months, and
a leaseholder for 12 months, before
y 15th of the year in which he
ms. There are, however, some ex-
ptions to this rule.

An occupation voter must have occu-
ied the premises for the 12 months
mediately preceding July 15th. He
some one else must have been rated
the relief of the poor in respect of
premises occupied, and such rates
t be paid on or before July 20th.
English boroughs he must reside
ein, or within seven miles thereof,
six months immediately preceding
y 15th, although under conditions he
lloed to be away for four months
his time.

A householder must have resided
in the same county or borough
ing the 12 months immediately pre-
ing July 15th, although under certain
ny difficulty about registration should
be referred to the local Liberal
ent, whose address can always be
obtained from the Liberal Central Asso-
ciation, 21, Abingdon Street, S.W.

Women Occupiers.—Particulars taken
a Mr. Charles Booth's "Life and
our in London" of some of the
er groups of the 189,982 women
upiers in London show that the
don municipal register includes
4 charwomen, office-keepers, laun-

conditions he, like the occupier and the
lodger, is allowed to be away for four
months of this time. He or some
else must have been rated for the relief
of the poor in respect of the residence
in question, and such rates must be
paid on or before the 20th of July. He
may move from one house to another
in the same parliamentary borough or
in the same parliamentary division of a
county and still retain his vote, but if
he moves out of one of these areas he
loses his vote and must qualify again
by residence for 12 months immediately
preceding July 15th.

A lodger must reside in the same
house for the 12 months immediately
preceding July 15th. Unlike every
other class of voter, a lodger must
claim his vote every year; old claims
on this part of the register must be
sent in before July 25th and new claims
before August 20th. Lodgers in Scot-
land, however, may claim the vote if
they have moved during the year within
the same parliamentary division.

In Scotland the period of qualifica-
tion is from July 31st to July 31st for
occupiers and lodgers, and from
January 31st to July 31st for owners.

dresses, 14,361 dressmakers and mil-
liners, 6,525 shirt and blouse-makers,
seamstresses, 5,595 waitresses, matrons,
&c., 4,433 tailoresses, 4,226 lodging and
coffee house keepers, 3,971 medical
women nurses, midwives, and 2,198
teachers.

THE ACTIVITY OF THE PLURAL VOTER.

The total number of names on the Parliamentary Register for 1911 is 7,904,465, divided as follows:—

| | |
|--------------------------------|-----------|
| Owners | 631,783 |
| Occupiers | 6,804,718 |
| Lodgers | 385,391 |
| Freemen, freeholders, &c. | 55,903 |
| University | 46,670 |

Total..... 7,904,465

The constituencies which are most seriously affected by the plural voter are the English counties, which return 253 members to Parliament. The voters on their registers number 3,751,039, 558,859 of whom are ownership voters. That is, the ownership voters form approximately 15 per cent. of the electorate.

It is, of course, necessary to distinguish between the ownership vote of persons living in the constituency and the out-voter proper. Figures published in January in the "Liberal Magazine" show that in 25 constituencies the out-voters were numerous enough to turn the issue of the election. It is fairly safe to assume that three-quarters of the out-voters' votes are given to Unionists, and on that very reasonable assumption a good many seats were lost to the Liberals which would have been secured by them if an Act prohibiting plural voting had been in operation. The figures are given below.

At least four other seats may safely be added, although the exact figures are not available. They are:—

Lancs., N. Lonsdale; Lancs., Newton Notts, Bassetlaw; Staffs, Kingswinford. On May 2nd, 1906, Mr. Lewis Harcourt introduced a Plural Voting Bill, which was passed through all its stages in the House of Commons, but was rejected by the Lords on second reading on December 10th.

Mr. Harcourt's Bill provided that:—

1. No man may vote more than once.
2. The penalty for voting more than once shall be the usual penalty for impersonation, i.e., imprisonment for a period of not more than two years with hard labour—the penalty fixed by the Corrupt Practices Act, 1883, or a fine not greater than £500.
3. Electors with several qualifications must select for which constituency they intend to vote.

A more drastic proposal than that contained in the Harcourt Bill would not allow the man with more than one qualification to choose in which constituency he would record his vote, but would make residence a necessary qualification. The Government desired to re-introduce the Plural Voting Bill in 1911, but owing to the prolonged debates on the Parliament Bill and the Insurance Bill time would not permit. The Bill is now regarded as one of the certainties for next Session.

Where the Property Vote Turned the Scale.

| Name of Constituency. | Voters on the Register. | Ownership Voters resident outside the Constituency. | Voters, from Col. 2, who voted in Dec., 1910. | Borough Ownership Voters voting in Constituency. | Voters, from Col. 4, who voted in Dec., 1910. | Total Ownership Outvoters voting. Cols. 3 & 5. | Unionist Majority in December, 1910. |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|--------------------------------------|
| Cheshire, Altrincham .. | 18,921 | 743 | — | 575 | — | — | 119 |
| „ Eddisbury .. | 11,488 | 540 | 350 | 712 | 650 | 1,000 | 289 |
| Cornwall, Bodmin | 11,553 | 720 | 539 | — | — | 539 | 41 |
| Cumberland, Egremont .. | 9,199 | 276 | 195 | 257 | 216 | 411 | 250 |
| „ Eskdale .. | 11,014 | 1,810 | — | 740 | — | — | 370 |
| Derbyshire, High Peak .. | 12,412 | 453 | 351 | — | — | 351 | 184 |
| Devonshire, Tavistock .. | 15,395 | 615 | — | 1,966 | — | — | 390 |
| „ Torquay .. | 11,241 | 380 | 330 | — | — | 330 | 130 |
| Dorset, N. | 8,616 | 398 | 274 | — | — | 274 | 32 |
| Gloucester, Tewkesbury .. | 13,156 | 998 | — | 2,173 | — | — | 432 |
| Hants, Isle of Wight .. | 15,969 | 422 | 252 | — | — | 252 | 223 |
| Hereford, Ross | 10,946 | 893 | 677 | 456 | 349 | 1,026 | 121 |
| Hunts, North | 7,034 | 544 | 361 | 96 | 71 | 432 | 118 |
| „ South | 5,175 | 345 | — | — | — | — | 148 |
| Lancashire, Darwen .. | 17,732 | 746 | 671 | 2,230 | 2,051 | 2,722 | 215 |
| Leicester, Melton | 16,873 | 1,364 | 955 | — | — | 955 | 342 |
| Lincolnshire, Stamford .. | 10,056 | 500 | 312 | 400 | 300 | 612 | 339 |
| Norfolk, Mid. | 9,984 | 488 | 261 | — | — | 261 | 37 |
| Oxfordshire, Woodstock .. | 10,525 | 1,300 | — | 900 | — | — | 392 |
| Suffolk, Stowmarket .. | 11,190 | 450 | — | 350 | — | — | 191 |
| „ Woodbridge .. | 12,808 | 450 | 370 | 1,315 | 1,047 | 1,447 | 560 |
| Wilts, Chippenham .. | 9,175 | 296 | 170 | — | — | 170 | 26 |
| „ Wilton | 9,072 | 640 | 599 | 398 | 375 | 974 | 587 |
| Worcester, Droitwich .. | 11,200 | 700 | — | 690 | — | — | 72 |
| Yorks, Whithby | 11,200 | 640 | 368 | 964 | 732 | 1,100 | 452 |

In this table:—

1. No account is taken of voters who have a double residential qualification, though in some constituencies there are a considerable number of them.
2. Column 4 gives the number of voters who have a residential and an ownership

qualification in a borough situate in the county, and one of these, the ownership franchise, in the county.

3. It is assumed, as may very safely be done, that an ownership outvoter would have a residential qualification in some other constituency.

THE LATCH-KEY VOTER.

The Case of Kent v. Fittall.

In *Kent v. Fittall*, decided by the Court of Appeal on July 19th, the point at issue was whether sub-tenants rent a part of a house in which their landlord resided, and for which the landlord was rated and paid the rates, were entitled to be put on the register as occupiers.

In previous cases the Courts had made the test the presence or absence of control by the landlord, and the possession of a latchkey symbolised for the general public the freedom and the title of the sub-tenant. The Court of Appeal now applied a new test, and ruled that, unless there were statutory exceptions, a man was entitled to be put on the register as an occupier unless he was separately rated and paid rates. The statutory exceptions recognised were (1) where rates are compounded by agreement or by order of the local authority. In London such premises must not exceed £20 rental, in Liverpool £13, in Manchester and Birmingham £10, and elsewhere £8. (2) Where the dwelling-house or tenement is wholly let out in apartments or flats.

The decision has swept the latchkey off by tens of thousands; in some cases he will get on again as a lodger

in 1913, in others he will not have even the lodger qualification. The Divisional Court has since decided that the *Kent v. Fittall* decision does not disfranchise those who rent a whole house from a landlord, who himself pays the rates. These may come under the exception (2) above.

In an address to his constituents on September 29th, Mr. McKenna pointed out that the evil of plural voting was as nothing to the wholesale disfranchisement which might result from the decision in the case of *Kent v. Fittall*.

"At this year's Registration Courts," he said, "2,300 citizens were deprived of their right to vote in the Newport Boroughs, and, according to a statement made by the Registration Agent in South Monmouthshire, 10,000 voters had had their names struck off the list in that division. The objection in every case was technical."

"The real determining principle in deciding whether these 12,000 citizens should or should not have a vote was whether their landlord lived on the same premises as themselves or whether they paid their rates direct to the rate collector or paid them with their rent to the landlord, who passed the money on to the rate collector on their behalf. They must have an amendment of the law in time to secure that those voters should have their rights restored to them before the next election."

THE PAROCHIAL ELECTOR.

Who may Vote at Municipal Elections.

The Municipal Corporations Act of 1882 applies to all cities and boroughs except the City of London and the unincorporated borough of Winchester. In the boroughs of Scotland and the sixty county boroughs in Ireland the conditions, which are regulated by Local Government Acts applicable to the counties, are very similar to those in England.

Technically, municipal electors are divided into two classes:—

- (1) Burgesses who vote under the provisions of the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882.
- (2) £10 occupation burgesses qualified under the County Electors' Act of 1888.

Practically any person can be placed on the municipal register who is an occupier, joint or several, as owner or tenant, of any house, warehouse, counting-house, shop, or other building in the borough, provided that person lives within 7 miles of the borough, and that the qualifying property is rated for the poor rate, which in other rates has been duly paid. For county council elections the same qualifications are required. This franchise includes women and peers, but not municipal and county purposes. Outside London there are no lodger or

service voters. Bankrupts are not disqualified from voting at municipal elections, but policemen are.

It will thus be seen that there are in practice two registers, one for parliamentary and the other for municipal and county council elections, although the two overlap to a considerable extent. The main general principle seems to be that women are excluded from the first, and property owners as such are excluded from the second, but there are endless exceptions and qualifications. By combining the two we obtain the list of those who are entitled to vote at elections for the London County Council, for the 28 London Borough Councils, for Urban Districts, for Rural Districts, and for Parish Councils. These are the "parochial electors," i.e., those persons whose names appear on that part of either of the two registers which relates to the parish in question. This is the reason why the lists of voters which hang on church doors are always grouped by parishes, the voting areas, including the area of the London County Council, being aggregations of parishes.

The Local Government electors in England and Wales in 1897 numbered 5,326,879, of whom 729,758 were women. There is no later return.

THE CASE FOR REDISTRIBUTION.

The Largest and the Smallest Constituencies.

The returns of the Census of 1911 make clearer than ever (1) the defects of the electoral divisions of the United Kingdom as at present constituted, and (2) the limitations of the franchise.

The 468 parliamentary areas of England and Wales, not including the Universities, return 490 members to the House of Commons, and since the total population is 36,075,269, an even distribution would give one member to 73,623 persons. But individual constituencies do not necessarily show a population in any degree approximating to this average. There are eight constituencies in which the population per member is under 20,000:—

| Boroughs. | Population, 1911. |
|---------------------------|-------------------|
| Durham | 15,956 |
| Bury St. Edmunds | 16,785 |
| Montgomery (Dist.) | 16,814 |
| Penryn and Falmouth | 17,624 |
| Whitehaven | 18,575 |
| New Windsor | 19,840 |
| Salisbury | 19,891 |
| City of London (2) | 19,657 |

On the other hand, there are no fewer than 83 constituencies in which the number of inhabitants per member is 100,000 or more; extreme examples are:—

| Divisions. | Pop. 1911. | Divisions. | Pop. 1911. |
|-----------------------|------------|------------------|------------|
| Wandsworth | 253,797 | Walthams'w | 246,807 |
| West Ham | 187,285 | Tottenham | 186,681 |
| Cardiff (Dist.) | 185,881 | Enfield | 180,100 |
| Croydon | 169,559 | Bootle | 167,528 |
| Lewisham | 160,972 | Glamorgan | 164,816 |
| Fulham | 153,360 | Wimbledon | 160,203 |
| Romford | 132,864 | Handsworth | 159,794 |
| Harrow | 247,877 | Ealing | 159,727 |

In 1891 there were only seven constituencies with populations exceeding 100,000; in 1901 the number had risen to 41; and in 1911 it further rose to 83.

Not much less urgent is the case of the 33 constituencies which have one representative for a population of between 90,000 and 100,000. The anomalies set out in the table below will show how great is the need of a comprehensive scheme of redistribution.

| Constituencies having the following Population per Representative. | Total Population. | Number of Electors.* | Number of Con-stituencies. | No. of Repre-sentatives. |
|--|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 100,000 and upwards | 11,275,644 | 1,901,703 | 83 | 86 |
| 90,000 and under 100,000 | 3,119,909 | 542,727 | 33 | 33 |
| 80,000 " 90,000 | 4,060,866 | 678,600 | 46 | 48 |
| 70,000 " 80,000 | 3,952,368 | 695,037 | 50 | 53 |
| 60,000 " 70,000 | 4,729,832 | 843,859 | 70 | 73 |
| 50,000 " 60,000 | 4,828,431 | 918,794 | 85 | 88 |
| 40,000 " 50,000 | 2,739,796 | 531,274 | 57 | 60 |
| 30,000 " 40,000 | 824,607 | 151,350 | 20 | 23 |
| 20,000 " 30,000 | 398,674 | 73,133 | 16 | 17 |
| 10,000 " 20,000 | 125,485 | 22,251 | 7 | 7 |
| Under 10,000 (City of London) | 19,657 | 30,988 | 1 | 2 |
| | 36,075,269 | 6,387,716 | 468 | 490 |

* Including Ownership Electors, Occupation Voters, Lodgers, Freemen, and Freeholders.

Of the total population in England and Wales in 1911, 54.4 per cent. were resident in parliamentary counties and 45.6 per cent. in parliamentary boroughs, while the proportions of electors in these counties and boroughs were respectively 58.7 and 41.3 per cent.

One Vote for Each Social Unit.

The second defect brought out by the Census is the limited nature of the franchise. A comparison between the official figures of the electorate in 1911 and the number of families and separate occupiers in the various parliamentary divisions will show that, far from the one adult, one vote ideal, we have not yet, under our complicated registration system, even reached the standard of **one vote for each social unit**. The discrepancy in the rural county divisions is considerable, and is augmented if the plural voter is taken into account; in the boroughs and urban districts of the counties it is very great, and is not to be accounted for by the absence of women occupiers from the register. Figures from representative groups of constituencies are added by way of illustration:—

| Constituency. | Families or Separate Occupiers. | Voters 1911. |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|--------------|
| Lancashire, N.E. | | |
| Darwen | 19,645 | 18,071 |
| Clitheroe | 29,666 | 22,816 |
| Accrington | 21,048 | 16,556 |
| Rossendale | 17,187 | 13,280 |
| Sussex: | | |
| Horsham | 13,796 | 11,725 |
| Chichester | 15,071 | 12,397 |
| E. Grinstead | 14,106 | 11,884 |
| Lewes | 21,722 | 17,943 |
| Eastbourne | 19,678 | 14,805 |
| Rye | 15,979 | 14,119 |
| Leeds: | | |
| North | 32,528 | 23,485 |
| Central | 10,853 | 8,339 |
| East | 14,444 | 9,367 |
| West | 24,779 | 19,067 |
| South | 19,980 | 15,900 |

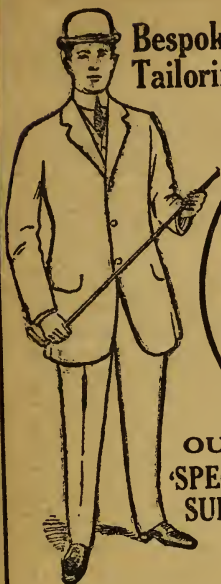
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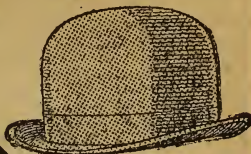
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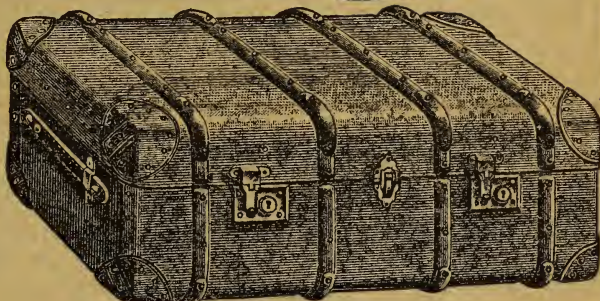
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| | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
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| 41/6 | 44/- | 46/6 | 49/- |

No. 1444. **Cabin Size.**

| | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 30in. | 32in. | 34in. | 36in. |
| 37/6 | 40/- | 42/6 | 45/- |

TORY PREPONDERANCE ON THE BENCH.

The agitation for securing a larger representation of Liberalism on the magisterial bench was continued during 1911, and towards the end of the year, was fruitful in results. In the month of July Mr. Neil Primrose, M.P., and Mr. Athelstan Rendall, M.P., published returns they had received from thirty-nine English and Welsh counties giving particulars of the composition of the benches situate therein. The net result was to show that in the 39 counties, so far as could be ascertained, the party politics of the magistrates were:—

Conservative 6,075
Liberal 2,039

This was something like three to one, but in some instances the disproportion was much greater.

We give the figures for eight typical English and four Welsh counties.

| County. | Magistrates before 1906. | | Appointments '06 to July, '11. | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------------|------|
| | Cons. | Lib. | Cons. | Lib. |
| Northumberland .. | 132 | 56 | 26 | 33 |
| Oxford | 123 | 53 | 20 | 32 |
| Rutland | 29 | 1 | 1 | — |
| Shropshire | 163 | 22 | 26 | 17 |
| Staffs | 340 | 126 | — | — |
| Westmorland | 128 | 39 | 20 | 12 |
| N.R. York | 162 | 81 | 29 | 41 |
| Somerset | 258 | 75 | 48 | 23 |
| Brecknock | 99 | 35 | 21 | 20 |
| Carmarthen | 77 | 29 | 5 | 12 |
| Carnarvon | 71 | 40 | 14 | 24 |
| Cardigan | 90 | 33 | 21 | 10 |

The additions to the Bench between 1906 and the middle of 1911 did not appreciably alter the disproportion.

During that period the appointments in the 39 counties worked out thus:—

Liberal 1,077
Conservative 1,029

During the month of July a return was issued giving the composition of 61 of these committees. There was nothing, however, to show precisely how many Liberals or Conservatives were serving upon them. A few contained a majority of Liberals, but the greater number appeared to be preponderatingly Conservative. But by the autumn some of these committees had got to work and fresh appointments, which, for a time, had been in abeyance, began to be announced. The first batch of names came from the county of Kent, where 40 appointments were said to bear the following complexion:—

Liberal 30
Conservative 10

As to individual appointments, Mr. Frank Briant, L.C.C., chairman of the Lambeth Board of Guardians, and prospective Liberal candidate, was added to the County of London Bench.

Sir A. D. Warrington and one or two other Liberals have been appointed to the Buckinghamshire Bench.

In Suffolk, 14 gentlemen added to the Bench include a sprinkling of Liberals, among them Mr. J. M. D. Henderson, M.P.

On the other hand, in Pembrokeshire, which is overwhelmingly Liberal, 30 magistrates out of 39 are now Liberal, including Sir Samuel Evans, president of the Divorce Division, Judge Lloyd Morgan, and W. Walter Roch, M.P.

There is reason to believe that other appointments were being made while this Year Book was going through the press.

NEW PEERAGES UNDER Mr. ASQUITH.

Mr. Asquith's list includes a very large proportion of peers created on re-arrangement of Government offices, appointments to office, law lords, &c., as under:—

On re-arrangement of Government: Viscount Morley (Mr. John Morley), Viscount Wolverhampton (Sir H. H. Fowler), Lord Lochee (Mr. E. Robertson), Lord Marchamley (Mr. G. Whiteley), Lord Pentland (Sir J. Sinclair), Viscount Haldane (Mr. R. B. Haldane).

On acceptance of official posts: Lord Gladstone (Mr. Herbert Gladstone), Lord Islington (Sir J. Dickson Poynder), Lord Devonport (Sir Hudson Kearley), Lord Hardinge (Sir C. Hardinge), Lord Glenconner (Sir E. Tennant).

On past holders of office: Lord Macdonell (Sir Anthony Macdonell), Lord Fisher, of Kilverstone (Ad. Sir John Fisher), Lord Kilbracken (Sir Arthur Godley), Lord Villiers (Sir J. de Villiers), Lord Stamfordham (Sir Arthur Bigge).

Law lords: Lord Shaw (Mr. Thomas Shaw), Lord Gorell (Sir J. Gorell

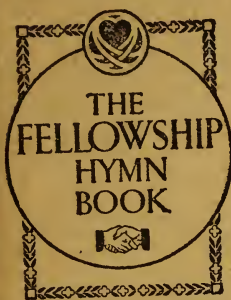
Barnes), Lord Mersey, of Toxteth (Sir J. C. Bigham), Lord Robson (Sir W. S. Robson).

Birthday, Coronation, and other peerages: Lord Holden of Alston (Sir Angus Holden), Lord St. David's (Mr. J. W. Philipps), Lord Desart (Earl of Desart, Irish peerage), Lord Ashby St. Ledgers (Hon. Ivor Guest), Lord Southwark (Mr. J. K. Causton), Lord Ilkeston (Sir W. B. Foster), Lord Cowdray (Sir W. Pearson), Lord Rotherham (Sir W. H. Holland), Lord Furness (Sir C. Furness), Lord Willington (Mr. Freeman Thomas), Lord Mountgarret (Viscount Mountgarret, Irish peerage), Lord Aberconway (Sir C. B. McLaren), Lord St. Audries (Sir A. Acland Hood), Lord Merthyr (Sir W. J. Lewis), Lord Rowallan (Mr. A. C. Corbett), Lord Ashton of Hyde (Mr. T. G. Ashton), Lord Charnwood (Mr. G. R. Benson), Lord Incheape (Mr. J. L. Mackay), Viscount Elibank (Lord Elibank, Scottish peerage), Viscount Chilston (Mr. Akers Douglas), Earl Curzon (Lord Curzon, Irish peerage).

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Opposition.—Chief Whip: Lord Balcarras. Whips: Captain Henderson, Lord Edmund Talbot, H. Pike Pease, W. Wilfrid Ashley, Robert Arthur Sanders, B. M. Eyres-Monsell, Sir George Younger (Scottish), Rt. Hon. Hayes Fisher (London).

Chief Organiser: H. R. D. Steel-Maitland. Treasurer: Lord Farquhar.

Labour Party.—Chairman: J. Ramsay Macdonald. Vice-chairman: W. Brace. Whips: G. H. Roberts, C. Duncan.

Secretary: James Parker.

Irish (Nationalist).—Chairman: John E. Redmond. Whips: Capt. A. J. C. Donelan, Patrick O'Brien, Haviland Burke, J. P. Boland. Hon. Secs.: W. H. K. Redmond, Richard Hazleton, W. T. Scanlan.

Irish (O'Brienite).—Chairman: William O'Brien.

Irish (Unionist).—Chairman: Rt. Hon. Sir E. Carson, K.C. Whip: Sir J. B. Lonsdale, Bt.

Nonconformist Group.—Chairman: Sir G. White. Whip: G. Hay Morgan.

London Liberal Members.—Chairman: W. H. Dickinson. Vice-chairman: Sir Albert Spicer, Bt. Treasurer: H. W. Carr-Gomm. Secretary: Thomas Wiles.

London Unionist Members.—Chairman: Rt. Hon. Walter Long. Hon. Sec. and Treas.: Sir William Bull.

Scottish National Committee.—Chairman: Rt. Hon. R. Munro-Ferguson. Vice-chairman: Sir Henry Dalziel. Hon. Secs.: W. H. Cowan, H. A. Watt. Hon. Treas.: D. V. Pirie.

Scottish Liberal Group.—Chairman: Rt. Hon. Eugene Wason. Hon. Sec.: Sir Walter Menzies.

Welsh Party.—Chairman: E. J. Ellis-Griffith, K.C. Secretaries: Ellis Davies, S. Robinson.

Land Values Parliamentary Committee.—Chairman: Charles Price. Secretary: P. Wilson Raffan.

Radical Group.—Hon. Secs.: J. M. Robertson, Percy Alden, Philip Morrell.

House of Lords.

Ministerialist.—Whips: Lord Colebrook, Lord Herschell.

Opposition.—Whips: Earl Waldegrave, Viscount Churchill.

SECTION VII.—LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

NATIONAL AND LOCAL TAXATION.

BY J. M. ROBERTSON, M.P.

The Inequality of Local Burdens.

By common consent, the relation between local and national taxation is one of the most pressing questions of administrative reform, and one of the most difficult. Dealt with again and again during the past thirty years, it is at present the subject of a fresh enquiry; and all politicians await with interest the solutions to be proposed. The grievances of "the ratepayer" are indisputable. Sir Charles Dilke used to remark that Mr. Gladstone at the height of his power could be defeated on a question of relief to the rates when he was unsympathetic, as he was apt to be upon this question.

The broad facts are that local burdens vary greatly (a) as between towns, suburbs, and districts, and (b) as between individuals. This arises from primary differences, inherent in the nature of all societies. Poverty drifts to certain town areas; State schools are numerous in one town area and few in another; gas and water necessarily vary in cost for different localities; the burden of roads varies in the same way; and police needs vary likewise.

In other countries, as well as ours, accordingly, adjustments have been made from time to time during the past century by way of equalising rating and partly relieving specially burdened localities and classes at the cost of the whole State. Municipal and Poor Law Reform in England involved a substitution of "unions" for the old system of parish provision; and small State grants in aid followed for Poor Law medical officers and teachers; in 1835 half the expense of maintaining prisoners under sentence was assumed by the State; and in 1846 Peel laid on the State various "local" charges amounting in all to half-a-million, mainly for the relief of "land," as an offset to the abolition of the Corn Laws.

Then the question of police reform came afresh to the front; and the problem of the principle of rating was debated in general and in detail. Were charities and public buildings and law courts to be rated? In the old days, only "property" was considered liable; and these were nobody's "property." Compromises began to be made by way of State grants to meet special cases (1860; 1873). In the same way, railways upset the system of road finance; from 1864 onwards the area of rating for roads was widened, and the cost apportioned between counties, districts, and parishes: and so on.

The main instrument for relief to overburdened districts was obviously the Grant in Aid; and this was made familiar by the development of the Education Grant in the period before National Education. When, in 1870, Education became a local burden, it was made acceptable, or less unacceptable, by large use of the Grant. But State supervision was increasing in other ways; and extra burdens always involved the State's taking a share. In vain Mr. Gladstone censured the "constant grasping at the Consolidated Fund." In vain, too, did he urge the more impressive plea that local rates were levied on "property," while State taxation fell largely on "labour."

The trouble was that all local rating, originally meant to fall in fair proportion to capacity to pay, had been worked down to the single technical standard of "rating value," which obviously has no true relation either to "property" or to "capacity."

Under this system, castles and their grounds are valued for rating purposes below dwelling-houses on the score that nobody would rent them; the small shopkeeper is taxed on his rental independently of his income; houses kept empty and sites kept bare are not treated as property at all; and machinery is burdened, while idle wealth pays only on "rating value," as does the manufacturer on his private house. The inequalities are so obvious that nothing could suppress the demand for reform; and Mr. Goschen, after opposing reforms as a Liberal, saw fit to propose some as a Unionist. Of course he began with the agricultural rates, in effect relieving landlords more than anyone else; but he aided police rates and manipulated liquor taxes in substitution for local excise licenses.

All the while Mr. Goschen planned for a clearer separation of local and national finance; having one good motive in the fact that it was becoming impossible to disentangle the figures. But the problem was too hard for him; and we find ourselves to-day with local taxation still needing "relief," and with no fixed general principle upon which "local" can rightly be distinguished from "national" burdens.

Certain particular principles, indeed, are widely accepted, in other countries as well as our own. Education is admitted to be in the nature of a national concern, and receives the largest Grant in Aid. Prisons and police are in a less degree national-

used. Roads are beginning to be treated as in part national concerns. The same may be broadly said in different degrees of other countries. (In France, for instance, there have long been State roads, nationally maintained.) But whereas in some countries, notably Prussia, poor relief is more and more treated as a State burden, albeit the administration is local and the cost largely localised, poor relief in this country still weighs very unequally on districts and municipalities. The total Grants in Aid amount to a little over two-and-a-half millions, less than a fifth of the whole Poor Law expenditure; and the relief given varies greatly as between unions, bearing no calculable relation either to need or to efficiency.

Obviously, the question of distribution of cost is independent of that of the reform of the methods of public assistance; and it is here discussed on its separate merits. It may be taken for granted that no one will dispute the need for some further approach to equalisation. In some Unions, the poor rate is over twelve times as much as in others; and in London, despite the operation of the Equalisation Fund, gross inequalities remain. The unequalised portion of the rates varies from about 1d. and 1d. in the £ in the City and in St. James's, Westminster, respectively, to 3s. 5d. in Poplar. Thus we have widely varying burdens laid on different districts by means of a rating system which is in itself inequitable to begin with.

The Reform of Local Rating.

The problem, then, is twofold. The basis of all local rating needs to be reformed; and the widely varying burdens of districts need to be more nearly equalised. Both tasks are difficult; but the second is perhaps the harder of the two. Localities are fitly to be encouraged in improving their public services; but on the other hand they cannot be promised that whatever additions they may make to their rates they will be recouped by the rest of the country. Certain localities, in fact, undertake special expenditures in order to encourage holiday resort to them; and this is obviously their own affair. The expenditure is profitable. Other localities, again, benefit by large bequests, which relieve poor and other rates. How is this betterment to be balanced for the less lucky localities?

We can but lay down some general rules of equity: for instance, that wherever school-rate, poor-rate, or police-rate rises more than a certain percentage above the average for the Kingdom, if on scrutiny it appears that the cause is sheer pressure of pauperism and school requirements, and not waste or mismanagement, the rating authority should have a claim for national relief. And so with roads and police. Where the wear and tear of roads can be shown to be in an exceptional degree due to their use by non-residents, or where their cost is in an exceptional degree imposed by State requirements, the principle of Grants in Aid should come into play; and where for any reason the State's requirements in the matter of police and prisons are exceptional, the principle of relief should apply. We shall never attain strict equality of burdens; and, inasmuch as many districts have various natural and acquired advantages and amenities, their lot will remain enviable whatever may be done in relief of rates elsewhere.

But there remains the more theoretically simple problem of just rating. For some reformers, it is simple in

the extreme. The principle of taxation of land values on a basis of capitalisation, introduced in the great Budget of 1909, is obviously applicable to local rating; and the more enthusiastic champions of the principle would not only apply it rigorously, by the standard of "best economic use," but make it the sole basis. On both issues, however, they will incur decisive opposition, though they may count with certainty on the speedy acceptance of the primary principle. Many, if not most, of the Conservatives who opposed the land-value taxes of the 1909 Budget professed to regard such taxation as just and fitting for local purposes; and inasmuch as nearly all the municipalities in the country are pronouncedly of the same opinion, the matter may so far be taken as settled in advance.

But difficulty begins when we consider the limitation of rating basis to land values. The Georgians themselves stress the fact that land values differ greatly not only between town and country, but between parts of towns. Unless, then, the local services of the whole Metropolis are to be financed out of one fund, raised from the site-values of the whole, there must be other rating bases for the districts where site-values are low; and in many rural districts site-values are an obviously inadequate basis for rating; while other bases might yield a fair return. The income-tax basis, for instance, is admittedly a fairer one than that of "rateable value" as now applied; and local rating on an income basis has long been contended for.

In Prussia, where it was for a time so much relied upon that Miguel in 1893 put a definite limit to its use, local taxation of incomes still subsists under those restrictions. Miguel's principle was to reserve income-taxation in the main for national purposes, leaving for local purposes the so-called "real" forms of tax on land, buildings, and trade. A main motive of the readjustment had been the extremely

inequitable and indeed corrupt assessment of incomes before 1893; and the limitation imposed on local authorities in that regard was that they must follow the State assessment and system of graduation, though they may, with the sanction of the central authority, extend the tax downwards as low as an income of £21.

It is not probable that any such downward extension of income-tax for local purposes will be adopted in this country; but there are obvious reasons for making our income-tax assessment a basis for rating. Whereas all rating of house property and of machinery is *pro tanto* a discouragement of building and industry, the rating of incomes would discourage neither the one nor the other. And as against the Single-Taxers, an income-rate as well as an income-tax is strongly to be insisted on. The ultimate moral standard or test of citizenship is reciprocity of service; and taxation must have regard to this principle, and not merely to the principle of use of the land. Men do not create their own capacities any more than they do the land; and if an artist or actor or doctor or barrister or jockey can make a large income, he is fitly to be made to contribute to both local and national needs in respect of his capacity to pay.

As regards inherited wealth, the obligation is still clearer. To raise all the rates of a locality from site values, while the heirs of consols and other stocks and shares contributed nothing on these, would be to flout the very principles upon which the demand for reform is founded. The capital value of land, obviously, is a much better basis for local rating than the capital value of scrip or portable property, seeing that the latter could be removed at will. But income as assessed for income-tax may fitly be rated for local burdens.

By all means let us have a local rating of land values on the lines established by German and other foreign municipalities, and by our own Budget of 1909. Mr. Lloyd George proposed to go "halves" with the

local authorities, and only for reasons of expediency substituted another concession to them: the systematic local rating on the new basis will certainly follow upon the report of the Imperial and Local Taxation Committee. But let us recognise in local as in national finance that other forms of wealth than that derivable from ground rents and site-values are properly to be taxed. By so doing we shall the more easily secure the great ends of encouraging industry and housing reform. By rating at once site-values and incomes we may hope to abolish the rating of machinery and the rating of houses as such.

If we combine with such a reform of local taxation the further reform of substantial equalisation of local burdens as between districts, we shall remove two great grievances and do much for the promotion of comfort throughout the land. It is perhaps not generally realised how much industry is affected by local rating. There are towns in which the rates, as at present adjusted, make all the difference between continuance and stoppage of particular trades. Mere transference of burdens from machinery and buildings to site-values and incomes would mean industrial expansion and prosperity. Depressions that are set down by tariffists to foreign competition are often to be accounted for between local burdens and railway rates.

So much is to be hoped for from simple rectification of the bases of rating that until that is accomplished we shall do well not to alarm ourselves over any possible increase of national burdens from relief of excessive local burdens. Increased industry will mean increased burden-bearing power, local as well as national. At present the amount raised by public rates in England and Wales is about 60 million pounds, and the amount contributed to local authorities by the Exchequer is some 20 million pounds. The local taxation of land-values may easily yield 5 million pounds more.

J. M. R.

Municipal Slaughter Houses.

Some interesting investigations into the working of municipal slaughter-houses abroad have been made by a committee of the Liverpool Corporation with a view to the provision of cattle-markets and abattoirs for the City. The great economy effected by having live cattle and dead meat markets, abattoirs, and the allied trades grouped together on one site as close as possible to the landing-stage or railway station impressed itself upon the minds of the committee. And the advantage of having the markets under municipal control, and thus in close communication with the medical and sanitary authorities, whose duty it is to prevent unsound or diseased meat being offered for sale, appealed strongly to administrators, who realised the difficulties under which inspectors now sometimes have to work.

They admitted that in these respects, and particularly in the inspection of live and dead cattle, Germany and Belgium were far in advance of us.

The Slaughter of Animals Bill introduced by Mr. George Greenwood, proposes that all persons carrying on the business of slaughtering in Rural as well as Urban districts shall be required to take out licenses which must be periodically renewed. Thus local authorities, who in some areas have no control at all at present, will be able more easily to supervise this business. Further provisions attempt to prevent unnecessary cruelty in killing animals for food, and with this end in view require every man employed to be licensed. The power of local authorities to provide municipal slaughter houses is not interfered with.

LOCAL TAXATION IN ENGLAND & WALES.

Expenditure and Receipts of Local Authorities.

In the year 1908-9, the last year for which complete figures are available, there were 25,309 separate local authorities in England and Wales under the supervision of the Local Government Board who had financial transactions. These included the London County Council, 61 County Councils, the Corporation of London, the Councils of 28 Metropolitan Boroughs, 74 County Boroughs, and 253 other boroughs, 815 Urban Sanitary Authorities or District Councils, 667 Rural District Councils, 653 Boards of Guardians, 14,574 Overseers of the Poor, and 6,737 Parish Councils and Parish Meetings.

The total expenditure of this host of authorities, otherwise than out of loans, is shown in the following table:—

LOCAL TAXATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

| Works and purposes. | Total. | Per cent. of total. |
|---|--------------|---------------------|
| | £ | |
| Administration of Justice .. | 957,565 | 0·8 |
| Baths, Washhouses, and open bathing places | 747,514 | 0·6 |
| Cemeteries | 718,020 | 0·6 |
| Education, Elementary and Higher | 26,812,798 | 22·0 |
| Electric Lighting (other than public lighting) | 3,347,571 | 2·8 |
| Gasworks | 7,155,577 | 5·9 |
| Harbours, Docks, Canals, &c. | 4,251,868 | 3·5 |
| Highways, Bridges, and Ferries | 13,898,680 | 11·4 |
| Hospitals other than Poor Law Infirmaries | 1,916,829 | 1·6 |
| House Refuse, removal and Destruction of | 2,126,879 | 1·7 |
| Housing of Working Classes | 549,713 | 0·5 |
| Lighting (Public) | 2,232,495 | 1·8 |
| Lunatics and Lunatic Asylums | 3,729,765 | 3·1 |
| Markets | 862,301 | 0·7 |
| Parks, Pleasure Grounds and Open Spaces | 1,336,058 | 1·1 |
| Police and Police Stations | 6,578,807 | 5·4 |
| Poor Relief | 12,290,282 | 10·1 |
| Private Street Works and other works of private improvement | 1,278,916 | 1·0 |
| Sewerage and Sewage Disposal Works | 4,690,507 | 3·8 |
| Small Holdings and Allotments | 99,836 | 0·1 |
| Tramways and Light Railways | 7,289,326 | 6·0 |
| Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, purposes of | 287,163 | 0·2 |
| Vaccination | 207,063 | 0·2 |
| Valuation | 140,865 | 0·1 |
| Waterworks | 5,360,280 | 4·4 |
| Other works and purposes .. | 10,661,613 | 8·7 |
| Unapportioned loan charges .. | 2,382,455 | 1·9 |
| Total | £121,910,746 | 100·0 |

The receipts of local authorities from all sources except loans are set out

below, together with figures showing the percentage of the total derived from each source:—

RECEIPTS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

| Source. | £ | Per cent. |
|---|--------------|-----------|
| Public Rates | 61,273,458 | 50·3 |
| Exchequer Grants (including local taxation duties) | 21,355,732 | 17·5 |
| Gas, Water, and Electric Light Supply undertaking, and Tramways and Light Railway undertakings .. | 23,918,614 | 19·6 |
| Other sources | 15,404,790 | 12·6 |
| | £121,952,594 | 100·0 |

AMOUNT OF PUBLIC RATES RECEIVED BY EACH CLASS OF SPENDING AUTHORITY.

| | |
|---|-------------|
| London County Council | £6,570,842 |
| Other County Councils | 7,584,937 |
| Councils of Boroughs (with the Corporation of the City of London) | 23,426,464 |
| Councils of the Urban Districts .. | 6,268,263 |
| Rural District Councils | 3,123,201 |
| Guardians of the Poor | 12,326,068 |
| Metropolitan Police | 1,180,780 |
| Other authorities | 842,903 |
| | £61,273,458 |

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF RATES PER POUND OF ASSESSABLE VALUE AND PER HEAD OF POPULATION IN 1907-8 AND 1908-9.*

| | Rates in the £ | | | | Rates per head of population. | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|------|---------|------|-------------------------------|----|--------|----|
| | 1907-8. | | 1908-9. | | 1907-8 | | 1908-9 | |
| | s. | d. | s. | d. | s. | d. | s. | d. |
| London | 6 | 9·5 | 6 | 10·1 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 7 |
| County Boroughs .. | 6 | 10·9 | 6 | 11·1 | 13 | 5 | 14 | 6 |
| Other Urban Districts .. | 6 | 4·3 | 6 | 5·3 | 12 | 2 | 13 | 5 |
| Rural Districts .. | 4 | 1·3 | 4 | 3·0 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 6 |
| England and Wales | 6 | 0·25 | 6 | 1·19 | 14 | 4 | 14 | 11 |

* The population of the London and County Boroughs is taken from the estimates of the Registrar General, for the other districts the 1901 figures are taken, no estimates being available.

PUBLIC RATES AND EXCHEQUER GRANTS.

| | Per pound of Assessable Value. | | Per head of Population. | |
|---------|--------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| | Public Rates. | Exchequer Grants. | Public Rates. | Exchequer Grants. |
| | s. | d. | s. | d. |
| 1899-00 | 4 | 11·8 | 1 | 6·0 |
| 1900-1 | 5 | 1·3 | 1 | 6·0 |
| 1901-2 | 5 | 3·8 | 1 | 5·3 |
| 1902-3 | 5 | 7·4 | 1 | 5·2 |
| 1903-4 | 5 | 9·5 | 1 | 8·5 |
| 1904-5 | 5 | 11·8 | 2 | 0·7 |
| 1905-6 | 6 | 1·20 | 2 | 1·0 |
| 1906-7 | 6 | 1·22 | 2 | 1·6 |
| 1907-8 | 6 | 0·25 | 2 | 1·0 |
| 1908-9 | 6 | 1·19 | 2 | 1·5 |

Expenditure and Receipts of Local Authorities—(con.)

The decrease in the average rate in the £ that occurred between 1906-7 and 1907-8 was not maintained in 1908-9, but the increase in that year was less than 1d., and the amount of the rate was practically the same as in 1905-6. On the other hand, the

amount of rate raised per head was higher in 1908-9 than in any preceding year. The stationary value of the rate was caused by the increase in assessable value keeping pace with the rise in expenditure.

EXCHEQUER GRANTS, EXPENDITURE FROM RATES ON POOR RELIEF, ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND OTHER PURPOSES IN 1908-9 AND PREVIOUS YEARS PER HEAD OF THE ESTIMATED POPULATION.

| | Poor Relief. | | Elementary Education. | | Other purposes. | |
|---------------|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| | Raised from Rates. | Exchequer Grants. | Raised from Rates. | Exchequer Grants. | Raised from Rates. | Exchequer Grants. |
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| 1884-5 | 6 2 | 5 6 | 1 8 | 9 0 | 11 3 | 5 7 |
| 1894-5 | 5 10 | 1 5 0 | 2 6 | 1 10 5 | 14 2 | 3 0 4 |
| 1899-00 | 6 2 | 1 5 0 | 3 4 | 2 5 2 | 16 1 | 3 10 0 |
| 1904-5 | 7 1 | 1 4 9 | 5 3 | 5 11 9 | 21 0 | 4 0 8 |
| 1905-6 | 7 3 | 1 5 0 | 5 9 | 6 4 3 | 21 3 | 3 11 0 |
| 1906-7 | 7 1 | 1 4 7 | 5 11 | 6 7 7 | 21 8 | 4 1 2 |
| 1907-8 | 6 11 | 1 4 7 | 6 0 | 6 4 9 | 21 5 | 4 1 8 |
| 1908-9 | 7 0 | 1 4 9 | 6 3 | 6 5 7 | 21 8 | 4 3 3 |

LONDON'S EXCHEQUER GRANTS AND EXPENDITURE FROM RATES IN 1908-9 COMPARED WITH THOSE FOR THE REST OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

| | For Poor Relief. | | For Elementary Education. | | For other purposes. | | Total. | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|---------|--------------------------|
| | London. | Rest of England & Wales. | London. | Rest of England & Wales. | London. | Rest of England & Wales. | London. | Rest of England & Wales. |
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| Per £ of Assessable Value— | | | | | | | | |
| Exchequer Grants | 0 1 5 | 0 3 3 | 0 7 3 | 1 3 4 | 0 7 4 | 0 9 4 | 1 4 2 | 2 4 1 |
| Expenditure from Rates | 1 8 7 | 1 1 0 | 1 4 0 | 1 0 3 | 3 9 4 | 3 9 3 | 6 10 1 | 5 10 6 |
| Per Head of Estimated population— | | | | | | | | |
| Exchequer Grants | 1 2 5 | 1 5 3 | 6 0 3 | 6 6 4 | 6 1 4 | 4 0 1 | 13 4 2 | 11 11 8 |
| Expenditure from Rates | 17 0 | 5 6 | 13 3 | 5 3 | 37 4 | 19 4 | 67 7 | 30 1 |

RATEABLE PROPERTY IN ENGLAND & WALES.

The estimated gross rental of the rateable property in England and Wales in 1909 was £266,944,896. The net annual value or "rateable value" was £215,309,542.

The distribution of this rateable property was as follows:—

| | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|
| London | £44,935,668 |
| County Boroughs | 53,275,820 |
| Other Boroughs | 22,756,191 |
| Other Urban Districts | 39,153,558 |
| Rural Districts | 55,188,305 |

Of this amount £23,712,211 formed the

rateable value of agricultural land, which, under the Agricultural Rates Act, 1896, was only assessed at one-half its rateable value.

The average rateable value per head of

| | |
|--|---------|
| The Richest Metropolitan Borough was | £35 1 1 |
| The Poorest | 4 4 10 |
| The Richest County Borough .. | 8 17 7 |
| The Poorest | 3 4 7 |
| The Rich Extra-Metropolitan Poor-Law Union | 19 7 3 |
| The Poorest | 3 4 10 |

RATEABLE VALUE PER HEAD OF ESTIMATED POPULATION—

| Year. | London. | County Boroughs. | Administrative Counties. | England and Wales. | Total Amount England and Wales. |
|------------|---------|------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|
| | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ |
| 1904 | 9 3 11 | 4 19 7 | 5 12 8 | 5 18 6 | 199,355,590 |
| 1906 | 9 13 8 | 5 1 8 | 5 13 5 | 6 0 7 | 207,067,675 |
| 1907 | 9 15 8 | 5 1 11 | 5 13 9 | 6 1 0 | 209,891,680 |
| 1908 | 9 17 7 | 5 1 8 | 5 14 4 | 6 1 4 | 212,757,450 |
| 1909 | 9 18 7 | 5 2 1 | 5 14 5 | 6 1 7 | 215,309,542 |

Rates and Why they Differ.

Owing to the piecemeal growth of our local taxation system, we may have in one and the same parish rates raised to meet the expenditure of the Board of Guardians on poor relief, the County Council on education, main roads, lunatic asylums, &c., the Rural District Council on highways and sanitation, the Parish Council on lighting, &c., and the Overseers on the collection of the rates, the preparation of voters' lists, &c. In this particular case most of the expenditure would be met by one total rate—the "poor" rate—but the responsibility for the amount of that rate would lie between the numerous authorities. In town parishes the number of authorities is less, but nowhere are there less than two authorities responsible for the amount of the rates.

What is usually called the "rates" of a district is therefore **not a single tax, but a collection of taxes** levied for the purpose of meeting the net expenditure of several local authorities on many local services. These services are not the same in all districts, nor are they carried out by similar authorities.

The object of a rate is to apportion out among the inhabitants of the dis-

trict the net expenditure on a service, and this is done on the principle that each person pays the same amount, or rate, in the £ on the net annual value of the buildings, land &c., that he occupies. For certain classes of property, notably agricultural land, a deduction of one-half or more of the annual value is allowed in respect of rates for certain services. The total net annual value of the district, after allowing for these deductions, is known as the **Assessable Value**. The rate in the £ required to meet the net expenditure on any service is

$$\frac{\text{Net expenditure}}{\text{Assessable value}}$$

that is:—

$$\frac{\text{Total expenditure} - \text{Receipts other than rates}}{\text{Assessable value}}$$

Any variation in the amount of the rate in the £ must obviously be due to a variation in one or more of the three quantities—expenditure, other receipts, and assessable value.

Taking a fourth factor, population, into account, the formula may be written:—

$$\frac{\text{Rate in the £}}{\text{required.}} = \frac{\text{Exp. per head} - \text{other receipts per head.}}{\text{Assessable value per head.}}$$

Why Expenditure Per Head Varies.

The nature of the services rendered.—The main cause of the variations of expenditure is to be found in the nature of the services rendered. There is a very large class of optional services such as the lighting and scavenging of streets, the provision of parks, free libraries, museums, and swimming baths, which are carried out by some authorities and not by others. Coast protection and promenade construction is a heavy expense in seaside towns. Shipping towns have to maintain quarantine stations.

The extent of the services.—One local authority may provide better paved roads, finer schools, workhouses, and other public buildings than another. The adoption of the latest methods in education or in the treatment of the poor makes a great difference in the cost of these services. A rapidly-growing district will have to provide new sewers, new schools, &c., and although these are usually paid for out of loans, the loan charges themselves will be a heavy burden. Or, again, there may be a excessive amount of pauperism to cope with. A shipping town will require a stronger police force than an inland town of the same size. The larger number of children attending elementary schools in proportion to the population makes elementary education an important item in poor districts. Thus Bournemouth has roughly only

half as many elementary school children to educate in proportion to the population as Walthamstow.

The necessary cost of the services.—The necessary cost of carrying out the same service to the same extent in different districts varies enormously. In 1907-8 the average cost of maintaining and repairing the streets in the Metropolitan Boroughs was £274 per mile, whereas in the County Boroughs the cost was only £131 per mile. Seaside towns are usually able to discharge their sewage into the sea, other towns have to maintain expensive sewage farms. The cost of living is high in most towns, as compared with the country, and particularly so in London, and this affects all services, involving a considerable expenditure on salaries. Similarly the high price of ground in towns makes the cost of new buildings, street improvements, and parks very high.

Extravagant administration.—Owing to the impossibility of assessing at their proper value the causes detailed above, no estimate can be formed of the amount of extravagance prevailing in the expenditure of a local authority except by an investigation into all the circumstances of the case. There is often a tendency to ascribe too great importance to this cause, but high rates do not necessarily mean extravagance nor medium or low rates economy.

Why other Receipts Vary.

The other receipts of local authorities consist mainly of (a) Exchequer grants, (b) the profit on municipal trading, and (c) the revenue from property.

(a) *Exchequer grants.*—A complete explanation of the inequalities in the present distribution of Exchequer grants would fill a small volume. It may be pointed out, however,

Rates and Why they Differ—(con.)

(i.) That the elementary education grants, which are mostly fixed grants per child, operate unfavourably against those districts in which the necessary expense of education is high or those which adopt the most approved methods, and are unduly liberal to authorities who are able and content to meet the minimum requirements of the Board of Education on a very low scale of expenditure.

(ii.) That the bulk of the other grants is distributed either on the basis of certain grants discontinued in 1888, or, in the case of local taxation licences, in accordance with the area of collection. The distribution on the basis of the discontinued grants could hardly have been called fair in 1888. After 23 years nothing can be said for it. The method of distribution of the licence duties is open to the objection that the richest districts receive the largest grants. As an illustration of the inequalities of the system the Royal Commission on Local Taxation pointed out that

in 1899-1900 Rutland received 6s. 8d. per inhabitant, while Burnley received only 2s.

(b) *Municipal Trading*.—Recent years have seen a rapid expansion in the net revenue derived from reproductive undertakings. From the figures given in the table on pages 172-175 of the rates of the chief towns of the United Kingdom, it will be seen that in several cases the reduction in the rates owing to these receipts exceeds 1s. in the £. Other authorities only aim at making the receipts from such undertakings balance expenses, while in some cases there is an actual loss on working which has to be met from rates.

(c) *Municipal Property*.—In some districts, of which the best example is the City of London, the local authority is possessed of extensive property other than modern reproductive undertakings, which brings in a considerable income to the relief of the rates. Other town councils have inherited little but debt.

Why Assessable Value Per Head Varies.

The assessable value per head of a district depends on

(a) *The poverty or wealth of the inhabitants*, e.g., the assessable value per head of the parish of St. George's, Hanover Square, in 1908 was over £31, while that of Mile End was only £4. In other words, to meet the same net expenditure per head the rate in Mile End would have to be nearly 8 times the amount in St. George's.

(b) *The proportion of business premises*, e.g., the assessable value per head of the City of London was over £204, while that of Walthamstow was only £3. Again, in some rural parishes more than half the rates are paid by a railway company whose line runs through the parish.

(c) *The cost of house accommodation*.—If house rent is high, as is the case in London, the valuation will be higher in proportion for the same class of resident than elsewhere. For this reason, the rates in London, though little above the average for county boroughs, are really more oppressive.

(d) *The accuracy of valuation*.—If all the property in a district is valued below its real net annual value, the assessable value per head will be too low, and the rates

too high in proportion. It is generally admitted that the property in London is assessed at much more nearly its true value than property in the provinces.

Summarising the causes of the difference of rates mentioned above, we find that the amount of the rates depends on:—

(1) The number and nature of the services rendered; (2) the extent of those services; (3) the necessary cost of carrying them out; (4) the degree of extravagance of administration; (5) the amount of exchequer grants; (6) the profit or loss on trading undertakings; (7) the amount of other income; (8) the wealth of the inhabitants; (9) the amount of business premises, land, &c., in the rating district; (10) the cost of house accommodation; (11) the correctness of the valuation.

The first three items are chiefly responsible for the difference in rates between urban and rural districts, while those numbered (8) and (9) are probably the most important causes of difference in rates between one urban district and another.

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THE DEBT OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

LOCAL INDEBTEDNESS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

| At End of Year. | National Debt of the United Kingdom. | Outstanding Loans of Local Authorities in England and Wales for | | |
|-----------------|---|--|--|-------------|
| | | Reproductive Undertakings (as stated above). | Other Purposes (e.g., Schools, Sewers, Work- houses). | Total. |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| 1884-5 | 739,882,117 | 81,735,697 | 91,472,271 | 173,207,968 |
| 1889-90 | 689,089,046 | 93,714,973 | 104,954,339 | 198,671,312 |
| 1894-5 | 659,001,552 | 106,484,506 | 128,850,543 | 235,335,049 |
| 1899-1900 | 638,919,931 | 135,322,296 | 158,541,928 | 293,864,224 |
| 1904-5 | 796,736,491 | 246,793,385 | 219,665,884 | 466,459,269 |
| 1906-7 | 779,164,704 | 262,549,564 | 231,937,948 | 494,487,512 |
| 1907-8 | 762,326,051 | 268,586,687 | 235,058,929 | 503,045,616 |
| 1908-9 | 754,121,309 | 274,169,283 | 238,818,239 | 512,487,522 |

It will be seen that in 1908-9 the outstanding loans of local authorities in England and Wales reached the enormous sum of £512,487,522.

For the whole of the United Kingdom the corresponding figure was £599,010,375.

The above table furnishes an interesting comparison between the National Debt and the so-called local "debt." It must not, however, be assumed that the two "debts" are strictly comparable. The amounts shown below under the heading of reproductive undertakings (including therein baths, cemeteries, electricity works, gas works, harbours, docks, piers, canals, quays, markets, tramways and light railways, and water works) are of the nature of working capital rather than debt. The amounts in the fourth column may be regarded as the real debt of local authorities.

As a set-off against this debt there are sinking funds amounting to £19,058,275.

Of the sum of £274,169,283 outstanding loans for reproductive undertakings £48,872,063 counts as loans to the Metropolitan Water Board.

The chief purposes for which these loans have been raised (so far as the loans can be apportioned) are set out

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF OUTSTANDING LOANS PER

below in the order of importance:—

LOCAL UNDERTAKINGS FOR WHICH LOANS ARE RAISED.

| Purposes. | New Loans received in 1908-9. | Total Loans outstanding at end of 1908-9. |
|--|-------------------------------------|--|
| | £ | £ |
| Waterworks | 3,209,880 | 124,999,994 |
| Highways and Street Improvements | 1,969,295 | 52,213,795 |
| Harbours, Docks, Piers, Canals, and Quays | 1,223,443 | 47,876,451 |
| Education (Schools, &c.) | 3,395,610 | 44,487,206 |
| Sewerage and Sewage Disposal Works | 2,201,839 | 41,116,129 |
| Tramways and Light Railways | 2,374,448 | 34,671,021 |
| Electric Lighting | 1,568,819 | 29,357,974 |
| Gasworks | 523,152 | 23,429,647 |
| Poor-Law purposes .. | 547,383 | 12,964,889 |
| Lunatic Asylums | 342,816 | 11,120,517 |
| Housing of the Work- ing Classes | 311,775 | 10,642,479 |
| Parks, Commons, &c. | 320,937 | 8,428,508 |
| Public Buildings and Offices | 307,110 | 8,067,030 |
| Markets | 106,076 | 7,548,367 |

POUND OF RATEABLE VALUE AND PER HEAD OF POPULATION.

| Purposes. | Per Pound of Rateable Value. | | | Per Head of Estimated Population. | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| | London. | Rest of England and Wales. | England and Wales. | London. | Rest of England and Wales. | England and Wales. |
| | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. |
| Reproductive Under- takings | 1 5 8 | 1 5 10 | 1 5 9 | 12 13 5 | 7 2 0 | 7 16 5 |
| Non-Reproductive— Poor-Law | 0 2 4 | 0 0 11 | 0 1 3 | 1 2 11 | 0 5 1 | 0 7 5 |
| Elementary Education | 0 4 11 | 0 3 5 | 0 3 9 | 2 8 5 | 0 19 0 | 1 2 10 |
| Remainder | 1 5 1 | 0 15 5 | 0 17 5 | 12 8 3 | 4 4 8 | 5 5 8 |
| Total | £2 13 0 | £2 5 7 | £2 8 2 | £28 13 0 | £12 10 9 | £14 12 4 |

The Local Authorities (Ireland) (Qualification of Women) Bill, which was sent to the Lords in August, 1911, enables women, who had been previously debarred because of their sex, to serve as members of Irish County and Borough Councils.

The Health Visitors Bill, introduced by Mr. Burns, gives authority to local authorities outside London to appoint and pay health visitors, whose duty would be to give advice to mothers on the proper nurture and care of children under five years old.

MUNICIPAL

(These Figures are kindly supplied by

Figs. for 1910-II.

| BOROUGH. | Population. | Rateable Value, 1911. | INCOME OF THE BOROUGH COUNCIL. | | RATES IN THE £. | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| | | | Rates. | Imperial Taxes. | Poor Relief. | Elem. Education. | All other Services. | Total Rates in the £. |
| | | £ | £ | £ | | | | |
| Aberdeen | 163,084 | — | 141,474 | 12,471 | { 6½d.* 6½d.† | 7½d.* 9d.† | 1/21* 2/7½† | 2/3½* 3/11½† |
| Aston Manor | 75,042 | 261,093 | 62,760 | 34,434 | 1/5 | 1/9½ | 5/0½ | 8/2½ |
| Barrow-in-Furness .. | 63,775 | 308,231 | 68,892 | 7,243 | 1/- | 1/2½ | 3/9½ | 6/- |
| Barnsley | 50,623 | 170,225 | 36,792 | 22,021 | 11½d. | 1/3 | 4/9½ | 7/- |
| Bath | 50,729 | 333,147 | 87,954 | 26,518 | 1/3½ | 7½d. | 5/1½ | 7/1 |
| Belfast | 385,492 | 1,522,314 | 422,740 | 50,733 | 1/2 | — | 4/6-5/- | 5/8-6/2 |
| Birkenhead | 130,832 | 681,745 | 170,664 | 69,856 | 11½d. | 1/8½ | 4/4 | 7/- |
| Birmingham | 525,960 | 2,960,415 | 849,703 | 268,210 | 1/4½-1/8 | 1/10 | 4/8½-4/9 | 7/11-8/3 |
| Blackburn | 133,064 | 545,411 | 174,803 | 56,596 | 10½d. | 1/6½ | 5/7 | 8/- |
| Blackpool | 58,376 | 518,363 | 124,434 | 24,069 | 4d. | 6½d. | 4/5½ | 5/4 |
| Bolton | 180,885 | 854,865 | 211,745 | 94,871 | 1/4 | 1/7 | 3/11 | 6/10 |
| Bootle | 69,881 | 470,318 | 105,146 | 30,666 | 1/8½ | 1/3½ | 4/3 | 7/3 |
| Bournemouth | 78,677 | 658,162 | 133,916 | 28,920 | 8½d. | 6½d. | 3/8½ | 5/- |
| Bradford | 238,505 | 1,568,790 | 516,221 | 165,195 | 1/3½ | 1/11 | 5/7½ | 8/10 |
| Brighton | 131,250 | 886,365 | 224,071 | 58,732 | 1/7½ | 1/0½ | 4/6 | 7/2 |
| Bristol | 357,059 | 1,846,475 | 634,377 | 195,424 | 1/4½ | 1/4½ | 6/5 | 9/2 |
| Burnley | 106,337 | 422,375 | 104,427 | 47,214 | 1/- | 1/3½ | 4/2½ | 6/6 |
| Bury | 58,649 | 293,148 | 93,287 | 28,288 | 11d. | 1/2 | 5/11 | { 7/8† 8/-* } |
| Cardiff | 182,280 | 1,148,403 | 338,092 | 105,643 | 1/0½ | 1/4½ | 5/0½ | 7/5 |
| §Cork | 76,632 | 186,805 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| §Coventry | 106,377 | 394,510 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Croydon | 169,559 | 1,142,584 | 266,565 | 76,538 | 10½d. | 1/2½ | 5/1 | 7/2 |
| Darlington | 55,633 | 258,535 | 44,324 | 19,020 | 10½d. | 1/2½ | 3/1½ | 5/2 |
| Derby | 123,433 | 558,451 | 148,800 | 20,073 | 1/5½ | 1/9 | 4/5½ | 7/8 |
| Devonport | 81,694 | 345,248 | 84,783 | 38,262 | 1/- | 1/0½ | 4/3½ | 6/4 |
| Dewsbury | 53,538 | 248,682 | 66,344 | 122,347 | 10d. | 1/4 | 6/8 | 8/10 |
| Dublin | 290,638 | 983,588 | 463,592 | 66,479 | { 2/2 1/10 } | — | 8/5½ | { 10/7½ 10/3½ } |
| §Dudley | 51,092 | 168,370 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Dundee | 165,006 | 911,546 | 280,401 | 72,025 | 1/3½ | 1/5 | 3/10½ | 6/7 |
| §Ealing | 61,235 | 467,778 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Eastbourne | 52,544 | 431,022 | 85,863 | 19,200 | 9½d. | 6½d. | 4/6½ | 5/11½ |
| §East Ham | 133,504 | 507,516 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Edinburgh | 393,496 | 2,948,276 | 412,522 | 37,750 | 7½d. | 1/1½ | 2/11 | 4/7½ |
| Gateshead | 116,928 | 444,535 | 103,920 | 60,430 | 1/6 | 1/8½ | 3/10½ | 7/1 |
| Gillingham | 52,252 | 181,626 | 50,802 | 14,450 | 3/2 | 1/8 | 3/10 | 8/8 |
| Glasgow | 784,455 | 5,975,000 | 1,069,036 | 89,090 | 1/8½ | 1/4½ | 3/9½ | 6/10½ |
| Gloucester | 50,029 | 233,140 | 60,169 | 6,681 | 11d. | 1/10½ | 3/11½ | 6/9 |
| Govan | 89,725 | — | 60,959 | 8,002 | — | — | 3/- | — |
| Great Yarmouth | 55,808 | 256,042 | 63,029 | 11,662 | 2/0½ | 1/3 | 4/4½ | 7/8 |
| §Greenock | 75,140 | 434,975 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Grimsby | 74,663 | 300,997 | 89,877 | 34,322 | 1/6½ | 10½d. | 6/1 | 8/6 |
| Halifax | 101,556 | 490,285 | 172,541 | — | 1/- | 1/8½ | 6/3½ | 9/- |
| Hastings | 61,146 | 426,454 | 115,440 | 28,715 | — | 1/4 | — | 7/6½ |
| Hornsey | 84,602 | 685,066 | 142,859 | 12,425 | 1/1½ | 1/1½ | 5/2 | 7/5 |
| Huddersfield | 107,825 | 521,787 | 174,425 | 54,350 | 10d. | 1/6 | 6/- | 8/4 |
| Hull | 278,024 | 1,253,209 | 354,360 | 145,433 | 1/7½ | 1/5½ | 5/5½ | 8/6½ |
| Ipswich | 73,939 | 339,775 | 119,464 | 10,409 | 2/- | 1/7 | 4/5 | 8/- |
| Leeds | 445,568 | 2,127,169 | 734,989 | 245,486 | 1/3½-1/7 | 1/6½ | 5/11-6/3 | 8/9-9/4 |
| Leicester | 227,242 | 1,098,495 | 278,331 | 122,704 | 1/11 | 1/8½ | 4/0½ | 7/8½ |

† Occupiers' Rate.

* Owners' Rates.

† Including Higher Education.

§ Returns for these Boroughs were not available at the date of going to press.

FINANCE.

the Officials of the Boroughs concerned.)

Figs. for 1910-II.

| TOTAL DEBT OF THE BOROUGH COUNCIL. | | REPRODUCTIVE SERVICES. | | | | | | | | | T'tal Relief in the £ to Rates from Reproductive Services. |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|---------------|-----------------|-----------|---------------------|---------|--|
| | | GAS. | | ELECTRICITY. | | | PROFIT OR LOSS. | | | | |
| Reproductive Services. | All other Services. | Net Profit or Loss. | Aver. Price per 1,000 ft. | Net Profit or Loss. | Price per unit Light | Power & Heat. | Water. | Tramways. | Other Undertakings. | | |
| £ | £ | £ | | £ | d. | d. | £ | £ | £ | | |
| 626,752 | 639,978 | — | 2/6 | — | — | — | — | — | + 5,044 | Nil. | |
| 400,938 | 266,124 | — | — | + 3,784 | 2·544 | ·87 | — | — 1,444 | — | 2·4d. | |
| 554,468 | 585,942 | + 6,027 | 2/6 | — | 4·272 | 1·321 | + 558 | — 163 | — 97 | 5·65d. | |
| 448,810 | 108,244 | Co. | — | + 890 | — 2·076 | — | + 1,683 | — | + 1,424 | 8½d. | |
| 307,179 | 492,750 | Co. | 1/10 | — 1,196 | 5·0 | 1½ | + 1,787 | Co. | + 9,765 | 8½d. | |
| 1,869,235 | 1,844,429 | + 39,700 | 1/11½ | + 5,000 | 3·17 | 2·14 | — | + 17,184 | + 4,471 | 5·95d. | |
| 1,146,053 | 1,046,618 | + 14,758 | 2/6 | + 952 | 4·0 | 1-1½ | + 1,525 | — 1,115 | — 2,888 | 5·14d. | |
| 11,884,402 | 4,503,084 | + 75,621 | 1/11 | + 15,449 | 3·0 | 1·225 | + 75,083 | + 41,103 | 3,060 | 6·45d. | |
| 1,883,409 | 1,068,115 | + 13,620 | 3/- | + 697 | 3·7 | 1·11 | + 1,990 | — 181 | + 4,590 | 2d. | |
| 810,796 | 1,323,565 | + 13,923 | 2/4 | + 5,270 | 3·7 | 1·6 | + 6,494 | + 8,425 | + 44 | 8d. | |
| 2,605,353 | 1,632,192 | + 20,000 | 2/4 | + 6,857 | 3½ | 1-2 | — 1,347 | + 9,247 | — 3,804 | 9½d. | |
| 103,896 | 339,094 | Co. | 2/3 | + 1,500 | 3·42 | 1·07 | — | — 164 | — | 1d. | |
| 474,923 | 413,466 | Co. | 2/6 | Co. | 6½ | 2½ | Co. | — 130 | — 3,020 | Nil. | |
| 5,172,447 | 2,895,335 | + 12,935 | 2/1 | + 8,980 | 4·0 | 1-2 | + 20,499 | + 39,374 | + 7,716 | 8d. | |
| 1,562,105 | 848,988 | — | 2/10 | + 4,752 | 4·0 | 1½ | + 2,468 | + 137 | — | 2d. | |
| 6,525,314 | 2,111,380 | Co. | — | + 769 | — 2·066 | — | Co. | Co. | — | Nil. | |
| 669,567 | 522,174 | + 15,009 | 2/3 | + 6,968 | 3½ | 1½ | + 3,411 | + 9,049 | + 1,106 | 1/3 | |
| 536,057 | 320,207 | + 7,710 | 2/- | + 1,655 | 3½ | 1-1½ | — 5,934 | + 1,328 | + 211 | — | |
| 1,997,149 | 1,966,774 | Co. | — | + 908 | 3·03 | 1·18 | — 5,124 | + 5,087 | — 2,149 | Nil. | |
| — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | |
| 865,911 | 1,295,203 | Co. | — | + 2,469 | 3½ | 1 | — 7,692 | + 8,458 | — | 1d. | |
| 270,115 | 199,143 | + 6,305 | 2/1½ | + 2,793 | 2·97 | ·84 | + 7,291 | — 2,398 | + 2,900 | 1/3·66 | |
| 828,532 | 784,711 | Co. | — | + 1,770 | 4½ | 1½ | + 12,587 | + 3,057 | + 2,023 | 1d. | |
| 889,518 | 340,790 | + 4,288 | 2/6 | + 26 | 3½ | 1½ | + 2,617 | + 459 | + 4,037 | ·319d. | |
| 571,679 | 276,262 | + 8,066 | 2/10 | + 2,845 | 2 | 2 | + 414 | — 214 | + 512 | 4·4d. | |
| 1,380,909 | 1,211,950 | Co. | — | + 6,459 | 2½-5½ | 1½ | — 18,944 | — | — | Nil. | |
| — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | |
| 1,735,453 | 1,047,917 | + 195 | 2/3 | — | 3 | 2 | — 653 | — | — | Nil. | |
| — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | |
| 142,267 | 335,146 | Co. | 2/6 | + 2,213 | 5 | 1-2½ | Co. | — | + 41 | — | |
| 1,602,226 | 1,293,719 | — | 2/8 | + 8,430 | 2½ | 1½ | — | + 5,500 | — | 1·094d. | |
| Nil. | 383,156 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | |
| 60,461 | 125,080 | — | — | — 4,002 | — | — | — | — | — | — | |
| 8,828,295 | 5,381,838 | + 9,961 | 1/11½ | + 6,680 | 2·53 | ·93 | + 9,907 | + 68,678 | — 2,659 | 2d. | |
| 291,798 | 173,657 | Co. | — | + 1,077 | 3·45 | 1·02 | + 3,142 | — 3,179 | — | — | |
| 172,446 | 282,200 | — | — | + 2,115 | 3½ | 1 | — | + 1,983 | — | — | |
| 192,848 | 276,670 | — | — | + 371 | 4½ | 1½-2½ | — | + 1,450 | — | — | |
| 87,652 | 212,068 | Co. | — | Nil. | 3½ | 1·07 | Co. | Co. | Nil. | — | |
| 2,000,073 | 1,147,566 | + 12,352 | 2/- | + 1,650 | 3·65 | 1·20 | — 13,797 | + 3,447 | + 741 | 8·4d. | |
| 286,947 | 249,722 | Co. | 2/10½ | + 1,677 | 5·38 | 2 | — 3,005 | Co. | + 5,239 | — | |
| 126,949 | 567,924 | — | — | + 1,922 | 4·36 | 1·85 | — | — | — | Nil. | |
| 2,923,299 | 1,120,843 | + 5,842 | 1/6-2/- | — | 4 | ½-2 | — 11,683 | + 6,458 | — 1,039 | 6½d. | |
| 1,073,414 | 2,270,100 | + 1,072 | 2/6 | + 8,223 | 3·45 | 1·12 | + 19,890 | 13,251 | 1,168 | 5·8d. | |
| 413,931 | 339,911 | Co. | — | + 2,115 | 4 | 2 | + 1,862 | — 950 | — | Nil. | |
| 6,716,920 | 6,422,308 | + 18,101 | 1/11-2/2 | + 9,993 | 3·11 | 1·04 | + 15,819 | + 51,888 | — 11,794 | 9½d. | |
| 2,732,389 | 1,843,879 | + 47,727 | 2/4-2/2 | + 2,349 | 4 | 1·6 | + 22,723 | + 13,734 | + 6,240 | 10d. | |

MUNICIPAL

(These Figures are kindly supplied by

Figs. for 1910-II.

| BOROUGH. | Population. | Rateable Value, 1911. | INCOME OF THE BOROUGH COUNCIL. | | RATES IN THE £. | | | |
|------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| | | | Rates. | Imperial Taxes. | Poor Relief. | Elem. Education. | All other Services. | Total Rates in the £. |
| | | £ | £ | £ | | | | |
| Leith | 80,489 | 558,197 | 68,813 | 7,058 | 1/1½ | 1/9½ | 2/10½ | 5/9½ |
| Lincoln | 57,294 | 242,775 | 77,586 | 23,984 | 1/3 | 1/0½ | 4/6½ | 6/10 |
| Liverpool | 746,566 | 4,783,340 | 1,232,131 | 475,240 | 1/9 | 1/8 | 4/8½ | 8/1½ |
| London (County) | 4,522,961 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Luton | 50,000 | 207,346 | 42,076 | — | 1/2 | 1/1 | 4/7 | 6/10 |
| Manchester | 715,427 | 4,554,958 | 1,393,238 | 409,227 | 1/6½ | 1/4½ | 5/4½ | 8/3½ |
| \$Merthyr Tydfil | 80,999 | 286,700 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Middlesbrough | 104,787 | 451,308 | 137,528 | 56,024 | 2/1 | 1/10 | 5/1 | 9/- |
| Newcastle-on-Tyne .. | 266,671 | 1,633,465 | 389,204 | 132,205 | 1/4 | 1/1 | 4/2½ | 6/7½ |
| Newport | 83,700 | 436,074 | 119,606 | 46,702 | 7d. | 1/9 | 5/5 | 7/9 |
| Northampton | 90,076 | 373,186 | 98,046 | 9,995 | 1/5½ | 1/10½ | 4/5½ | 7/10 |
| Norwich | 121,493 | 464,126 | 163,147 | 68,987 | 2/5 | 2/1½ | 6/1½ | 10/8 |
| Nottingham | 259,942 | 1,268,782 | 348,639 | 125,258 | 2/- | 1/6 | 4/9 | 8/3 |
| Oldham | 147,495 | 539,672 | 154,281 | 70,026 | 1/6 | 1/8 | 4/10 | 8/- |
| Oxford | 53,049 | 421,000 | 69,429 | 28,713 | 9d. | 10-9d. | 2/7-1d. | 4/3 |
| Paisley | 84,477 | 431,010 | 84,673 | 2,935 | 1/4½ | 1/5 | 4/8 | 7/5½ |
| Partick | 66,848 | 363,230 | 48,100 | 2,358 | 1/6† | — | 2/11½† | 4/5½ |
| \$Plymouth | 112,042 | 585,202 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Portsmouth | 231,165 | 1,076,611 | 251,542 | 107,015 | 1/5 | 1/4½ | 3/8½ | 6/6 |
| Preston | 117,113 | 454,896 | 120,748 | 56,784 | 1/2 | 11½d. | 6/11½ | 9/1 |
| Reading | 75,214 | 438,534 | 125,479 | 8,586 | 1/3 | 2/0½ | 4/5½ | 7/9 |
| Rochdale | 91,437 | 420,107 | 118,503 | 42,515 | 1/3 | 1/6 | 5/2 | 7/11 |
| \$Rotherham | 62,507 | 225,648 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| St. Helens | 96,566 | 390,424 | 74,489 | — | 2/6 | 1/5 | 3/3 | 7/2 |
| Salford | 231,380 | 1,044,806 | 313,975 | 127,347 | 1/10 | 1/4½ | 5/6½ | 8/9 |
| \$Sheffield | 454,653 | 1,847,001 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Smethwick | 70,681 | 279,652 | 73,684 | 31,141 | 1/5½ | 1/8 | 4/8½ | 7/10 |
| Southampton | 119,039 | 598,699 | 147,624 | 58,391 | 2/5½ | 1/3½ | 4/3½ | 8/2½ |
| Southend-on-Sea | 62,723 | 383,015 | 79,462 | 13,228 | 2/- | 11½d. | 3/4½ | 6/4 |
| Southport | 51,650 | 401,791 | 88,336 | 9,232 | 7d. | 7½d. | 3/5½ | 4/8 |
| South Shields | 108,649 | 442,638 | 113,553 | 55,645 | 1/5½ | 1/7 | 4/9½ | 7/10 |
| Stockton-on-Tees | 52,158 | 232,673 | 53,926 | 20,486 | 1/6 | 1/7 | 3/5 | 6/6 |
| Stockport | 108,693 | 453,876 | 114,298 | 51,808 | 1/4-1/6 | 1/2 | 4/10 | 7/6 |
| \$Stoke-on-Trent | 231,553 | 489,461 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Sunderland | 151,162 | 716,992 | 187,450 | 84,618 | 1/9 | 1/3 | 4/8 | 7/8 |
| \$Swansea | 114,673 | 542,406 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Swindon | 50,771 | 238,236 | 51,233 | 22,331 | 1/6½ | 1/6½ | 4/1½ | 7/3 |
| Tynemouth | 58,822 | 250,564 | 75,086 | 29,320 | 1/- | 1/11½ | 4/10½ | 7/10 |
| Wakefield | 51,516 | 235,261 | 65,632 | 3,070 | 2/0½ | 1/- | 5/0½ | 8/10 |
| Wallasey | 78,514 | 465,617 | 90,637 | 327,976 | 1/1 | 1/1 | 4/3½ | 6/5½ |
| Walsall | 92,130 | 293,551 | 65,624 | 4,377 | 2/4 | 1/10½ | 3/9½ | 8/- |
| Warrington | 72,178 | 290,122 | 74,582 | 35,611 | 1/3½ | 1/1 | 4/11½ | 7/4 |
| \$West Bromwich | 68,345 | 232,473 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| West Ham | 289,102 | 1,317,954 | 577,960 | 197,243 | 2/3½ | 2/2 | 5/3½ | 9/9 |
| West Hartlepool | 63,932 | 259,320 | 66,546 | 37,729 | 1/8½ | 1/10½ | 4/2 | 7/9 |
| Wigan | 89,171 | 348,215 | 112,312 | 41,565 | 1/1½ | 1/1½ | 7/8 | 9/11 |
| Wimbledon | 54,876 | 472,722 | 90,445 | — | 1/1½ | 10½d. | 4/9 | 6/9 |
| Wolverhampton | 95,333 | 411,266 | 120,876 | 55,900 | 2/6 | 2/0½ | 4/10½ | 9/5 |
| York | 82,297 | 410,204 | 126,707 | 39,910 | 1/3 | 1/4½ | 5/3½ | 7/11 |

† Occupiers' Rates.

* Owners' Rates.

‡ Including Higher Education.

§ Returns for these Boroughs were not available at the time of going to press.

FINANCE.

(the Officials of the Boroughs concerned.)

Figs. for 1910-II.

| TOTAL DEBT OF THE BOROUGH COUNCIL. | | REPRODUCTIVE SERVICES. | | | | | | | | | | Total Relief in the £ to rates from Reproductive Services. |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------|----------------------|--------|--------|--|
| Reproductive Services. | All other Services. | GAS. | | ELECTRICITY. | | | PROFIT OR LOSS. | | | | | |
| | | Net Profit or Loss. | Aver. Price per 1,000 ft. | Net Profit or Loss. | Price per unit Light | Powor & Heat | Water. | Tram-ways. | Other Under-takings. | | | |
| £ | £ | £ | | £ | d. | d. | £ | £ | £ | | | |
| 343,698 | 80,824 | — | — | + 1,213 | 2½ | 1½ | — | 1,625 | — | 1,122 | 4d. | |
| 510,812 | 188,513 | + 6,865 | 2/1 | + 3,323 | 3¼ | 1 | + 1,114 | 153 | + | 3,390 | 6½d. | |
| 8,103,711 | 5,661,342 | — 179 | 2/6 | + 46,529 | 3·3 | 1·6 | Nil. | + 98,266 | + | 93,666 | 9½d. | |
| 117,044 | 165,399 | Co. | — | + 3,128 | 2·57 | 1·07 | Co. | — | — | — | 1·1d. | |
| 16,852,657 | 6,893,494 | + 72,325 | 1/9-2/6 | + 27,573 | 3½ | ¾-1¼ | + 17,845 | + 79,064 | — | 62,844 | 8·52d. | |
| 1,788,924 | 458,052 | + 4,356 | 2/4 | + 2,079 | 3·45 | 1·15 | — 2,531 | — | + | 723 | Nil. | |
| 1,478,503 | 1,822,934 | — | — | — | — | — | — | + 23,703 | — | — | — | |
| 1,118,898 | 710,573 | Co. | — | + 1 | — | — | + 67 | Nil. | — | 2,185 | 1d. | |
| 419,810 | 247,897 | — | — | — | — | — | + 1,585 | + 2,732 | + | 1,569 | 2½d. | |
| 296,339 | 830,106 | — | — | + 5,744 | 4½ | 1-1½ | — | — | + | 4,753 | 2½d. | |
| 3,107,712 | 2,462,218 | + 35,000 | 2/4 | 16,700 | 3·16 | 1·25 | — | + 20,550 | + 21,738 | — | 1/7 | |
| 2,026,757 | 895,134 | + 12,481 | 1/11·9 | + 1,301 | 2·6 | 1·1 | + 7,975 | — 1,307 | — | — | 1/- | |
| 59,583 | 357,453 | — | — | — | — | — | + 6,302 | — | — | — | 4d. | |
| 883,075 | 446,115 | + 5,120 | 2/1 | — 3,540 | 3·9 | 1·2 | Nil. | Co. | Nil. | — | 3d. | |
| 123,720 | 136,467 | — | — | + 1,852 | 3½ | 1 | — | — | — | — | Nil. | |
| 814,847 | 1,021,881 | Co. | 2/4 | + 3,500 | 4 | 1½ | — | + 4,000 | — | — | 2d. | |
| 721,743 | 392,601 | Co. | 2/11½ | Co. | 4½ | 3½ | — | — | — | — | Nil. | |
| 367,773 | 783,687 | Co. | — | Co. | — | — | + 3,137 | + 1,500 | — | — | 3d. | |
| 1,657,906 | 819,004 | + 17,908 | 2/1½ | + 5,409 | 4 | ½-2 | + 19,178 | + 1,944 | — | — | 11½d. | |
| 523,969 | 352,049 | + 11,984 | 2/1·4 | + 24 | 3·35 | ·77 | + 283 | + 5,430 | — 1,761 | 3·8d. | | |
| 1,888,326 | 1,487,352 | + 15,750 | 2/4 | + 7,250 | 2·62 | 1·15 | + 2,073 | + 18,750 | Nil. | 11½d. | | |
| 172,897 | 284,766 | + 4,466 | 2/4 | — | — | — | — | + 1,500 | — | — | 6½d. | |
| 557,678 | 437,967 | — | — | + 4,317 | 2·9 | 1 | + 1,241 | + 8,934 | — | — | 2·2d. | |
| 293,675 | 520,117 | Co. | 3/4 | + 7,055 | 3·45 | 1·72 | Co. | + 3,196 | + 4,243 | 3·71d. | | |
| 458,151 | 341,292 | + 13,559 | 2/6½ | + 702 | 4½ | 2 | — | + 2,023 | + 1,234 | 9½d. | | |
| 236,416 | 456,200 | Co. | — | + 1,434 | — | 2·08 | Co. | + 2,344 | — 417 | Nil. | | |
| 1,282,873 | 303,375 | + 5,368 | 2/5 | + 747 | 3·3 | ·9 | — | — | — | — | 7·4d. | |
| 1,897,913 | 651,790 | + 19,350 | 2/4 | + 3,539 | 3½ | ¾-1¼ | — 2,340 | + 7,432 | — | — | 1/2 | |
| 750,426 | 613,282 | Co. | — | + 112 | 3·06 | ·87 | Co. | + 2,000 | — 15,290 | — | Nil. | |
| 245,949 | 180,924 | Co. | — | + 1,016 | 3·84 | 1·59 | + 432 | — 2,609 | — 720 | — | ½d. | |
| 699,980 | 169,803 | Co. | — | + 911 | 4½ | 1½ | — 5,671 | Co. | — | — | Nil. | |
| 837,947 | 222,116 | Co. | — | — 213 | 4½ | 1½ | + 3,825 | Co. | — 1,115 | Nil. | | |
| 794,167 | 696,224 | + 13,698 | 2/- | + 5,954 | 4 | 1½ | + 5,960 | + 4,972 | — 69 | 1/5 | | |
| 503,318 | 386,614 | + 7,010 | 3/- | + 1,231 | 4 | 1½ | Co. | + 3,889 | — | — | 6d. | |
| 682,130 | 459,438 | 11,069 | 2/1 | + 2,668 | 3/6 | 1·11 | + 1,935 | + 2,344 | + 3,044 | 1/5 | | |
| 1,064,131 | 1,985,212 | — | — | + 3,986 | 3 | 1 | — | + 8,513 | — 5,080 | — | 1½d. | |
| 63,605 | 273,408 | — | — | + 1,506 | 3·75 | 1·02 | — | — | — | — | Nil. | |
| 1,046,797 | 479,417 | + 10,413 | 2/1-2/10 | — 176 | — | 13·96 | — 2,927 | — 8,669 | — 93 | — | Nil. | |
| 167,324 | 294,890 | — | — | + 2,110 | 4·4 | ½ | — | — | — | — | Nil. | |
| 771,094 | 594,482 | — | — | + 5,231 | 2½ | ½ | + 5,674 | + 4,148 | + 3,233 | — | 7½d. | |
| 163,931 | 615,234 | Co. | — | + 1,527 | 4 | 1½ | Co. | + 1,800 | + 1,088 | — | — | |

MUNICIPAL TRADING.

Gas, Water, Electric Light, Tramways, and Light Railways.

According to the tables given above no less than 19·6 per cent. or £23,918,614 of the total receipts of local authorities in 1908-9 was derived from gas, water, electric light, tramways, and light railway undertakings. The total expenditure amounted to rather less than 23½ million pounds. Both sets of figures are exclusive of loans, but inclusive of loan charges. The total profit would be considerably greater if allowance

were made for the gas, water, and electricity used by local authorities for their own purposes, *e.g.*, lighting and watering the streets. Allowance has been made for such services in the following table, which shows so far as can be ascertained the numbers, &c., of such undertakings carried on in 1908-9 without assistance from rate or other accounts:—

MUNICIPAL UNDERTAKINGS IN 1908-9.

| Undertakings. | Number. | Total Receipts. | Total Expenditure. | Surplus Revenue supplied in Relief of Rates. |
|-----------------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------------------|--|
| | | £ | £ | £ |
| Tramways and Light Railways | 65 | 5,305,448 | 4,884,265 | 285,064 |
| Water Supply Undertaking | 155 | 3,153,730 | 2,973,005 | 96,704 |
| Gas Supply Undertakings | 103 | 6,897,555 | 6,527,484 | 455,234 |
| Electricity Undertakings | 118 | 3,407,819 | 3,182,867 | 101,590 |
| Total | 441 | 18,764,552 | 17,567,621 | 938,592 |

In the case of 28 tramway and light railway undertakings, 49 water supply undertakings, two gas supply, and 30 electricity supply undertakings carried on by town councils (excluding joint boards), sums amounting to £286,304 were transferred from the rates in the year to meet deficiencies in revenue.

Besides the undertakings above mentioned there are others which are re-productive to some extent, and in many cases yield a profit. The more important of these are:—

| | Total Receipts. |
|---|-----------------|
| Harbour Piers, Docks, Canals (Tolls, &c.) | £3,680,681 |
| Markets (Tolls, &c.) | 991,445 |
| Cemeteries | 424,584 |
| Baths, Washhouses | 312,306 |

The table on pages 172-175 gives details of the profit or loss in 1910-11 on the more important trading undertakings in the chief towns of the United Kingdom. In the case of Nottingham the relief to the rates amounted to 1s. 7d. in the £. But the absence of such relief in other cases must not be taken as meaning that those town councils are unable to make a profit. There are two sharply divided parties on the question of the manner of running municipal enterprises. One party holds that such undertakings should be run purely on commercial lines, with a view to making as much profit as is reasonably possible. The opposite party maintains that the charges made should be so adjusted that so far as possible no profit or loss is made; in other words, that the services should be rendered at cost price. Semi-philanthropic services, such as the provision of baths and the housing of the working classes,

are frequently run at a loss. Having regard to the effect of rates in increasing the cost of house accommodation—a necessary of life—it is highly desirable to reduce rates by increasing the revenue from other sources. But—and here lies the crucial point—this increase of the revenue from other sources should not involve any increase in the total burden on the lower classes for the purpose of local government. No one can deny that one of the greatest faults of our local taxation system is the almost entire absence of graduation. In fact, in the majority of cases a poor man actually pays **more** in proportion to his total income than the rich man, whereas equity would demand that he should only pay the same in proportion to his **surplus** in income, *i.e.*, **less** in proportion to his total income than the rich man. It is quite possible that future years may see a closer approximation in our system of rating to this principle of “equality of sacrifice,” but whether that reform is brought about or not, the guiding principle in all municipal trading should be to run at cost price all undertakings which involve a greater outlay on the part of the poorer classes in proportion to the rates they pay than on the part of the richer classes. Tramways may be cited as an example of a service that should be run at cost price, particularly in large towns. In the case of those undertakings which ought to be worked at a profit for the relief of the rates the amount of the profit must be determined by such considerations as the extent of competition, the desirability of retaining manufactures in the district by the provision of cheap power and light, &c.

LONDON RATES AND LONDON DEBT.

In the following table the boroughs, &c., are arranged in order of rates, commencing with the lowest. The average rates are shown in the case of boroughs which comprise two or more parishes.

| Cities and Boroughs. | Popula- tion Census 1911. | Rateable Value. | Rate for ex- pendi- ture borne centrally. | | Rate for expenditure borne locally. | | | | Total Rate. | Total Loans for Local Purposes. ** | Local Proportion of Central Loans.† |
|---|------------------------------------|--------------------|--|----|--|---------------------|----|----|----------------|--|--|
| | | | | | Guar- antees. | Bor'gh Councils. | | | | | |
| | | £ | s. | d. | s. | d. | s. | d. | | £ | |
| Westminster, City of | 160,277 | 6,370,929 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 735,905 | 13,501,853 |
| City of London | 19,657 | 5,479,579 | 4 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 1,181,774 | 9,768,748 |
| Kensington | 172,402 | 2,434,701 | 5 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 263,973 | 5,231,685 |
| St. Marylebone | 118,221 | 2,014,318 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 2,260,038 | 4,236,436 |
| Chelsea | 66,404 | 934,617 | 5 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 263,679 | 2,015,662 |
| Finsbury | 87,976 | 1,030,555 | 5 | 8 | 4 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 166,049 | 2,214,997 |
| Paddington | 142,576 | 1,547,279 | 5 | 7 | 5 | 0 | 5 | 6 | 1 | 208,276 | 3,324,977 |
| Wandsworth | 311,402 | 2,129,492 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 0 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 503,401 | 4,527,995 |
| Holborn | 49,336 | 1,088,061 | 5 | 8 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 152,636 | 2,307,374 |
| Hampstead | 85,510 | 1,113,965 | 5 | 7 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 474,017 | 2,382,216 |
| St. Pancras | 218,453 | 1,794,435 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 0 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 978,009 | 3,878,849 |
| Stoke Newington .. | 50,683 | 354,223 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 0 | 9 | 1 | 1 | 134,446 | 764,413 |
| Lambeth | 298,126 | 1,960,797 | 5 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 339,527 | 4,223,107 |
| Greenwich | 95,977 | 677,918 | 5 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 7 | 1 | 233,849 | 1,445,713 |
| Fulham | 153,325 | 912,008 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 608,418 | 1,952,853 |
| Islington | 327,423 | 1,944,501 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 955,265 | 4,200,871 |
| Lewisham | 160,843 | 1,090,492 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 246,828 | 2,345,034 |
| Hammersmith | 121,603 | 882,381 | 5 | 8 | 6 | 0 | 8 | 3 | 1 | 697,695 | 1,795,555 |
| Bethnal Green | 128,282 | 549,859 | 5 | 10 | 9 | 0 | 10 | 8 | 1 | 285,166 | 1,184,448 |
| Deptford | 109,498 | 647,357 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 256,654 | 1,390,401 |
| Hackney | 222,587 | 1,236,058 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 2 | 1 | 728,912 | 2,658,132 |
| Southwark | 191,951 | 1,309,502 | 5 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 10 | 5 | 1 | 365,046 | 2,819,333 |
| Shoreditch | 111,463 | 809,811 | 5 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 8 | 5 | 1 | 771,385 | 1,747,252 |
| Battersea | 167,793 | 1,064,463 | 5 | 10 | 3 | 0 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 748,442 | 2,295,591 |
| Stepney | 280,024 | 1,490,943 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 728,050 | 3,227,164 |
| Woolwich | 121,403 | 809,371 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 620,445 | 1,714,294 |
| Camberwell | 261,357 | 1,380,079 | 5 | 8 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 689,892 | 2,970,491 |
| Bermondsey | 125,960 | 942,719 | 5 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 657,556 | 2,028,393 |
| Poplar | 162,449 | 833,455 | 6 | 0 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 829,736 | 1,804,182 |
| Total, or Average for the County of London | 4,522,961 | £44,873,510 | 5 | 7 | 2 | 0 | 6 | 7 | 1 | £17,085,069 | £93,958,019 |

* Including £25,243 for the Inner Temple, and £14,399 for the Middle Temple.

** Including loans borrowed by borough councils, City Corporation, and Borough Market Trustees; Guardians and Sick Asylum and School District Managers.

† Loans borrowed by Central Bodies. These loans have been apportioned on the basis of rateable value, and consequently the equivalent percentage to rateable value is the same throughout London, viz., 215, except in the cases of the City of London and extra parochial places.

The London County Council.

The London County Council has not only the powers of an ordinary County Council, but also many of those usually assigned to Borough Councils, and, in addition, special powers peculiar to itself. The numerous services administered by it may be grouped under four heads, the more important being:—

- (i.) *County Services.*—Coroners, Criminal Prosecutions, Highways, Lunatic Asylums, and Main Roads.
- (ii.) *County and Municipal Services.*—Bridges, Education, Inebriate Reformatories, Juvenile Offenders, Weights and Measures.
- (iii.) *Municipal Services.*—Regulation of Buildings, Embankments, Fire Brigade, Main Drainage, Parks, &c., Street Improvements, Tramways, Tunnels.
- (iv.) *Special London Services.*—Central Criminal Court, Equalisation of Rates, Loans, Local Sewers, Markets.

Income and Expenditure, 1909-10.

A: RATE ACCOUNTS.

Receipts.

| | |
|--|-------------|
| Rates | £6,760,081 |
| Exchequer Grants and Local Taxation Licenses | |
| (i.) For Elementary Education | 1,320,192 |
| (ii.) Higher Education | 208,570 |
| (iii.) Other Grants | 463,788 |
| Interest on Loans to Local Authorities | 612,471 |
| Contributions to Rates from Working Class— | |
| Dwellings' Accounts | 3,500 |
| Parks' Boating Account | 2,000 |
| Equalisation Fund Contributions | 319,952 |
| Interest contributed by— | |
| (i.) Revenue Undertakings | 390,893 |
| (ii.) Works | 2,114 |
| Miscellaneous | 446,231 |
| Provided out of Balance | 55,913 |
| | £10,585,705 |

| <i>Expenditure.</i> | £ |
|--|-----------|
| Debt Charges | 3,627,007 |
| Education— | |
| (i.) Elementary | 3,803,392 |
| (ii.) Higher | 840,558 |
| Grants in Aid of Local Expenditure— | |
| (i.) Indoor Pauper | 327,131 |
| (ii.) Main Roads and Drowned Bodies | 105 |
| (iii.) Out of Exchequer Con- tribution Account | 305,028 |
| Contributions from Rates to Working- class Dwellings Account | 10,646 |
| Equalisation Fund— | |
| Grants to Sanitary Authorities | 319,952 |
| Main Drainage | 277,457 |
| Fire Brigade | 249,563 |
| Establishment Charges (other than Education, and Steamboats and Piers) | 190,004 |
| Pensions | 74,567 |
| Parks and Open Spaces | 136,399 |
| Pauper Lunatics | 71,196 |
| Judicial Expenses | 47,216 |
| Bridges, Tunnels, and Ferries | 45,625 |
| Coroners | 27,277 |
| Miscellaneous | 223,577 |

£10,585,705

B: REVENUE PRODUCING UNDERTAKINGS.*Receipts.*

| | |
|--|----------|
| (a) <i>Working-class Dwellings Accounts—</i> | |
| Rent and Interest on Cash Balances | £172,365 |
| Contributions from Rates | 10,646 |
| Contributions from Tramways Account | 176 |

£183,187

| <i>Expenditure.</i> | |
|--|------------|
| Maintenance, &c. | £76,917 |
| Debt Charges | 101,565 |
| Contribution to Rates | 3,500 |
| To Balance | 1,205 |
| | £183,187 |
| (b) <i>Tramways Account—</i> | |
| Traffic Revenue | £1,969,952 |
| Sundry Revenue | 72,071 |
| | £2,042,023 |
| Expenses of Maintenance and Running, &c. | £1,251,728 |
| To Renewals and Reserve | 191,109 |
| Debt Charges | 598,010 |
| Contribution to Working-class Dwellings' Accounts | 176 |
| | £2,042,023 |
| (c) <i>Small Holdings and Allotments Account—</i> | |
| Income | £411 |
| Provided out of Balance | 97 |
| Expenditure | £508 |
| (d) <i>Parks' Boating Account—</i> | |
| Sale of Tickets, &c. | 4,929 |
| Provided out of Balance | 396 |
| | £5,325 |
| Maintenance | £2,542 |
| Debt | 783 |
| Contribution to Rates | 2,000 |
| | £5,325 |

**Total Debt of the L.C.C. on 31st
March, 1910** £83,235,453
**Total loans to and Capitalised
Annuities due from other authori-
ties, and Value of Surplus lands,
&c.** 31,918,732
Net Debt £51,316,721

THE RESOURCES OF CHARITY.

An Income of 11½ Millions Sterling.

Official statistics of the total volume of money subscribed for charitable purposes per annum are lacking, but the Charity Organisation Society publish the following details of the sources of the aggregate income of institutions for various charitable purposes (spiritual charities excluded) for 1908. The

table does not include large sums of money contributed by congregations for relief purposes which would not pass through these channels, nor does it include many institutions, *e.g.*, those organised by the Roman Catholic Church, for which figures are not obtainable.

| | Contri- butions. | Invest- ments. | Payments by or for bene- ficials. | Legacies. | Indus- trial receipts | Sundries |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|--|-----------|-----------------------------|----------|
| Blind | £89,189 | £61,479 | £57,324 | £46,716 | £141,151 | £406 |
| Deaf and dumb | 15,900 | 14,541 | 51,012 | 10,384 | 1,325 | 256 |
| Cripples | 18,983 | 1,026 | 12,527 | 4,803 | 4,509 | 16 |
| Mental | 41,346 | 58,054 | 141,066 | 17,658 | 22,480 | 361 |
| Hospitals, nursing, &c. | 2,234,709 | 709,078 | 379,396 | 799,971 | 59,795 | 30,706 |
| Homes for aged | 157,289 | 263,157 | 17,506 | 48,431 | 8 | 41 |
| Homes for young | 640,796 | 155,602 | 152,275 | 242,598 | 41,274 | 936 |
| Education | 105,858 | 370,026 | 179,287 | 20,569 | 809 | 153 |
| Day nurseries | 3,019 | 64 | 1,156 | 342 | 11 | |
| Relief agencies | 633,299 | 162,284 | 117,619 | 100,796 | 76,243 | 1,994 |
| Reformatories | 31,662 | 3,737 | 385,369 | 100 | 22,858 | 4,498 |
| Prisoners' aid | 23,073 | 2,107 | 5,778 | 205 | 5,046 | 13 |
| Penitents | 81,797 | 9,448 | 16,385 | 4,922 | 57,918 | 757 |
| Social & physical improvement | 587,333 | 96,931 | 342,551 | 37,290 | 226,983 | 1,322 |
| Emigration | 14,323 | 2,020 | 21,826 | 1,010 | 262 | 52 |
| Protection | 160,905 | 39,452 | 9,423 | 117,222 | 12,360 | 363 |
| Benevolent institutions | 381,495 | 159,076 | 83,673 | 63,570 | 21,429 | 1,183 |
| | 5,200,976 | 2,108,082 | 1,974,173 | 1,516,587 | 694,461 | 43,057 |

SECTION VIII.—IMPERIAL AND FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS IN 1911.

By R. C. K. ENSOR.

The year 1911 was an eventful one for international diplomacy. The names for much negotiation, several crises, and one war were provided by Mohammedan North Africa. Underlying and complicating the rivalries of Christian claimants for African territory was a dangerous recurrence of Anglo-German antagonism. Happily this last did not ripen; while the conclusion of an arbitration treaty of unusually full scope between the United Kingdom and the United States was some counterpoise to the otherwise bellicose tendencies of the year.

Among the civilised Powers no development offered fairer hopes during the part of the year than that of "universal" arbitration treaties. The numerous arbitration treaties concluded during Edward VII.'s reign only added to the contracting parties to accept arbitration, when no question of honour or vital interests is involved. In March 22nd, 1910, President Taft, addressing the Peace and Arbitration Society of New York, suggested the possibility of the United States going further and concluding with some Power or Powers a treaty of universal arbitration, unrestricted by these reserves. In December, 1910, in another public speech he repeated the suggestion. What first let the world know that business was meant, was a speech

made by Sir Edward Grey in the House of Commons on March 13th, 1911. The occasion was a debate on the naval estimates, into which Sir Edward Grey somewhat irrelevantly but with great effect introduced a response to President Taft's overture. The idea of a "universal" Anglo-American arbitration treaty was taken up with enthusiasm on both sides of the Atlantic, and negotiations were opened to arrange it, followed by similar negotiations between the United States and France. President Taft strained every nerve, but from an early stage it was evident that he would have difficulties with the American Senate, where many held that such an arbitration treaty would sign away the Senate's constitutional control over treaties in general. On this rock eventually the scheme was wrecked. An Anglo-American Arbitration Treaty was signed in Washington on Aug. 3rd, and a similar Franco-American Treaty the same day. These treaties were both weakened by ingenious devices to placate the Senate, but it was not placated. On August 12th the Senate's Foreign Relations Committee amended both treaties in such an emasculating way as to deprive them of much interest or value. Nevertheless, the strong wave of popular opinion on their behalf marked an epoch.

The International Struggle in Morocco.

Africa was brought to the front by French aggression in Morocco. For some years, since they seized Casa Blanca on the West Coast, the French had widened and tightened their grip on the fertile hinterland of that port, the district called the Shawia, between which and the Algerian frontier they held Central Morocco (including Fez, the capital) in a sort of vice. They had also multiplied their financial influences over the Sultan, Muley Hafid, and supplied his army with French instructors. The methods which Muley Hafid employed to raise money to pay his French debts occasioned a widespread rising of the tribes against him in the spring of the year. On April 1st they besieged Fez, and though repulsed from the walls on April 2nd began a loose investment of the city. Tribe after tribe rose in sympathy. The Sultan's main drilled force, under the French Major Brémont, was away from the capital with its hands full. On April 18th the Sultan asked for a French force from the Shawia, and on April 19th the French Government ordered General Moinier to start with

one. On the 20th it announced to the Spanish Ambassador in Paris that it proposed sending the force to Fez. Alarmist reports were circulated from French sources to explain this action. On the 26th Major Brémont brought the Sultan's army safely back to Fez; but this did not stop the French expedition, which was only formally announced to the Powers signatory to the Act of Algéiras on April 27th. On May 21st the French army entered Fez without opposition. Once there they manifested no intention of leaving. The tribal agitation subsided.

The two other Powers with most definite appetites in Morocco were Spain and Germany. Neither was ready to stand completely aside while France swallowed the country. Spain intervened first, and on June 8th landed troops at Larache in North Morocco, and marched them to Alcázar. Awkward incidents and strained relations followed, but the French went on with their "pacification" of the tribes, which their general, on June 20th, reported to be well in hand. On July 1st came the thunderclap when the

German Government announced that it had dispatched the gunboat "Panther" to occupy the harbour of Agadir in South-west Morocco. The plea—on all fours with those of France and Spain—was that German interests were in danger there owing to tribal disturbances.

This brought to a head the diplomatic trouble, which had been accumulating since France broke the Act of Algeciras, and was complicated by changes of Ministry. Up till February 27th M. Briand was French Premier, and the Foreign Minister was the experienced M. Pichon. The resignation of MM. Briand and Pichon on that date was followed by a Monis Cabinet, whose Foreign Minister, M. Cruppi, was new

to the work and seems not to have handled over-well some long-standing Franco-German negotiations. On June 23rd the Monis Cabinet fell; a Caillaux Cabinet followed, and M. Cruppi was succeeded by another inexperienced Foreign Minister, M. de Selves. Immediately on top of this came the Agadir coup, whose author, Herr von Kiderler-Waechter, had himself not presided for long over the German Foreign Office. Add that from March 1st onwards a prominent member of the French Cabinets was M. Delcassé, who, as Foreign Minister in 1905, nearly brought on a Franco-German War over Morocco, and had not since then held Ministerial office. The situation seemed thus surcharged with awkward elements.

THE BERLIN "CONVERSATIONS."

The negotiations which followed centred on a series of "conversations" in Berlin between the German Foreign Secretary and the French Ambassador, M. Jules Cambon. The first took place on July 8th. The British Government, as Mr. Asquith took an early opportunity of informing Parliament, felt that a new situation had been created in which Great Britain had to watch her interests as well as her treaty obligations. Germany seems to have thought that Britain was not concerned, and after some weeks of uncertainty the British Cabinet put up Mr. Lloyd George to say in a speech at the Mansion House, in emphatic if not menacing language, that she was. The sequel of the speech was that the Berlin Government gave assurances to ours, with which ours was satisfied; but German public opinion was dangerously stung by what it took for a threat, and its resentment was steadily increased during August by repeated hitches during the negotiations. In these last Germany's attitude seems to have been from the outset that she would condone France's aggression in Morocco, and give her a free hand there, provided she was "compensated" by France ceding territory to her elsewhere. The Act of Algeciras was tacitly passed over; the rights of the signatory Powers and the independence of the Moors were alike ignored; Germany appeared not as the policeman stopping an act of international

brigandage, but as the rival brigand claiming "compensation" for not intervening. The conversations between the negotiators turned on two points—what and how much territory France should cede, and how far her "freedom of action" in Morocco should be limited by economic or political privileges for Germany. Repeated proposals and counter-proposals were made on both sides. Towards the end of August things looked so serious that both French and German army manoeuvres were countermanded, while the Belgian Government strengthened all its frontier garrisons.

Then at the beginning of September came a new factor. France and Russian banks began calling in their German loans; a slump set in on the Berlin Bourse; a run on the German savings banks followed, and several suspended payment. In a few days the country lost uncounted millions and all its business life was affected. France lost likewise, but far less. These losses quickened the pace of negotiation. A dinner given by Herr Kiderlen-Waechter to M. Cambon at the Berlin Foreign Office on September 23rd was held to mark the end of serious controversy, and on September 27th an "agreement on essentials" was semi-officially announced at Berlin. The "conversations," however, continued till near the end of October, when the last points of importance were settled.

THE ITALIAN COUP IN TRIPOLI.

No sooner did the Franco-German war cloud lift than a Turco-Italian war cloud appeared. The virtual partition of Morocco left only one area of the North African sea-board outside the influence of the Christian Powers. This was Tripoli, a vilayet of the Turkish Empire on which Italy had long had more or less avowed designs. The examples of successful brigandage afforded by France, Spain, and Germany were too much for her, and the instant Morocco appeared settled she resolved to strike. On September 28th

she launched a 24-hours' ultimatum at Turkey, and on September 29th she declared war. No one opposed her. The Turkish Cabinet of Hakkî Pasha had pursued a policy of courting German friendship and no other; but her Germany, as Italy's ally, had her hands tied. In vain did the Porte appeal repeatedly to all the Powers. Hakkî Pasha resigned, and was succeeded by Said Pasha, but the latter had the utmost difficulty in forming a Cabinet. The war opened with a sort of stalemate. The Turks had a powerful army, but could not use it to

defend Tripoli, because their naval weakness prevented their attempting to get it there. The Italians were in a position to seize the Tripolitan coast, but as the jealousy of the other Powers forbade their attacking Turkey in Europe or Asia, i.e., in any vital spot, it was not obvious how they could bring the war to an end. On October 3rd the Italian fleet bombarded Tripoli, and on October 5th the Italian flag was hoisted over the castle there, the Turkish forces having retired inland practically intact and without fighting. The same thing happened at the other coast towns. On October 9th Admiral Borea d'Olmo was formally installed as Italian Governor at Tripoli, and a decree was published abolishing slavery. The only sea-fighting which took place was in the Adriatic,

where on September 30th and October 1st and 2nd a few Turkish torpedo-boats and revenue cutters were sunk and a small transport captured.

Meantime the Ottoman Government tried economic weapons. A decree was issued expelling all Italians (of whom there were 40,000 resident in Turkey), but its execution was suspended on the advice of Germany. A proposal to declare grain contraband, i.e., to close the Dardanelles to the export of Russian wheat, was similarly put off through the opposition of Russia and other Powers. A great wave of Mohammedan enthusiasm was excited by the war; the Moslems of Albania and the Arabs of the Yemen, against whom the Turkish Government had been conducting costly campaigns, made peace at once in face of the common enemy.

TURKEY'S OTHER TROUBLES.

The Tripolitan war was not Turkey's only trouble during the year. A policy of "Turkification," pushed to unwise lengths, drove even her Moslem subjects to revolt, and all through spring and summer she was harassed by two revolts—that of the Albanians on the frontiers of Montenegro, and that of the Arabs in the Yemen. *The Albanian rising* was put down with a severity recalling the Turkish atrocities of Abdul Hamid's reign. It became very widespread at the beginning of June, and the Sultan went in person to try and conciliate the insurgents. He convened a great meeting on the historic field of Kossovo; his presence

and a liberal offer of money pacified some, but among the Catholic Albanians of the North (the Malissori) disturbances continued, and as the victims of their suppression crowded the Montenegrin frontier, there were risks of war in July and August from that side. Meantime in the Yemen on June 23rd the Turkish forces were ambushed and heavily defeated by the Arabs. The campaign there, in a most trying country and climate, continued to be a severe tax on Turkey's resources until the outbreak of the Tripolitan war, when terms were arranged with the rebel leader.

PERSIAN INDEPENDENCE.

The year was indeed conspicuous for the misfortunes of Islam. While Morocco lost her independence and Turkey territory, Persia continued with difficulty to preserve her national existence. **The non-execution of the British Government's threat to police Southern Persia, and the withdrawal of Russian troops from Kazvin in North Persia** during February were hopeful signs; but the defeat of the attempted British loan in April and the abrupt flight of the Premier from Teheran in June were episodes in a continued failure to master the situation. In July the re-appearance in Persia of the blood-thirsty ex-Shah, **Mohammed Ali**, threatened the very life of the Constitutional Government.

The ex-Shah, who had been living as an exile in Russia, pensioned by the Persian Government and supposed to be guarded by the Russians, succeeded, with the connivance of the Russian authorities, in making his way to the Caspian, and across it in a Russian vessel to the Turcoman tribes, on its south-eastern shore. Trusty lieutenants accompanied him; his standard was joined by Turcomans in some numbers, and after some weeks an advance upon Teheran was attempted by co-operating forces. The Constitutional Government was saved by the Bakhtiari clansmen, who originally founded it. On August

22nd they defeated the ex-Shah's own force, and on September 6th the army of his able and devoted lieutenant, Arshad-ed-Dowleh, who was captured and shot. The destruction of a third force under Salar-ed-Dowleh in the battle of Baghi-shah (September 27th) completed the triumph of the Government. For some weeks the ex-Shah was a fugitive, and it was not till October 18th that his definite escape into Russia was announced. His victory, had he won, would not only have meant the restoration of his own cruel despotism, but doubtless also the inauguration of a Russian protectorate; his attempt would have been impossible but for Russian connivance.

While the constitutional régime was thus able to parry a supreme crisis, it made little headway with the humdrum task of securing order throughout the country; nor did England and Russia facilitate its doing so. The great need was money, and the first step was to put the revenue on a proper basis. Early in the year the Parliament entrusted the task of financial reorganisation to an American, Mr. Morgan Shuster. It was a good appointment, but Mr. Shuster was much hampered by Russo-British obstruction. To collect the revenue it was indispensable to have a Treasury gendarmerie, organised on European lines. An Englishman, Major Stoke, an officer in the Indian Army, happened to possess far

the best qualifications for this work, and in the summer he was given the appointment. Russia thereupon objected, because the gendarmerie would operate in her sphere, North Persia, as well as in South Persia, and her implied claim was that no European military officer should be employed in North Persia unless he was a Russian. A compromise was suggested in August—that Major Stokes's personal activities should be confined to Teheran, where he would train a gendarmerie which would do the work in the provinces. After two months' haggling Russia refused to allow even this. Thus the entire summer went by without a start being made. England, who had backed up

Russia against Major Stokes, was meanwhile renewing her own threats against South Persia. At the beginning of October two Indian cavalry regiments received orders to proceed to Persia "to strengthen the guards of the British Consulates" at various South Persian towns. This looked so much like a military occupation of the country, that opinion in England was roused. After a few weeks' delay, however, the project was resumed on a lesser scale, and the Persian Government were informed that Indian troops would be introduced to strengthen the consular guards "at Shiraz and probably at other places"—a course against which it protested strongly but in vain.

GENERAL EUROPEAN SITUATION.

The general diplomatic situation revolved round the events already described. At the beginning of the year there was felt a certain weakening of the "triple entente" (Britain, France, and Russia) consequent on the Potsdam Agreement between Russia and Germany in the autumn of 1910. The Franco-German controversy over Morocco did something to revive it, but unfortunately revived also Anglo-German antagonism. This reached a very serious point during the August and September negotiations, being extraordinarily whetted by the untimely incident of the "Cartwright interview." This was an article in the "Neue Freie Presse" (of Vienna), which appeared in August, and attributed strong anti-German expressions to "a prominent English diplomatist." German opinion quickly identified the diplomatist with Sir Fairfax Cartwright, British Ambassador at Vienna; and, though there is no doubt that he could not have used much of the language of the alleged interview, his *démenti* was so tardy and ambiguous that it had little effect in reassuring the German mind. These late-summer developments were the more regrettable, because earlier in the year attempts had been made with some success to improve the tone of Anglo-German relations. In particular, during the Kaiser's visit to London (for the unveiling of the Victoria Memorial) in May was this better tone observable, and incidents like the German Crown Prince's reception in India during the winter had helped in the same direction.

In four foreign countries, domestic events of great importance took place during the year, which did not have much immediate international effect. These four countries were Russia, Portugal, Mexico, and China.

The internal history of Russia ever since the suppressed revolution of 1905-6 had been the progressive re-establishment of despotism by the Prime Minister, M. Stolypin. In March, 1911, this process culminated. A Bill of M. Stolypin's, dealing with the *Zemstvos*, was thrown out by the Council of

Empire, the Russian second chamber. Thereupon, on March 20th, M. Stolypin resigned, and maintained his resignation for nearly a week till the Tsar recalled him on his own terms. In accordance with these, on March 27th, decrees were issued suspending for three days the sittings of both the Duma and the Council of Empire, and enacting the *Zemstvo Bill* by Ukase over the heads of them both. This in effect ended even the make-believe of constitutional government. Fiercely denounced, even by the moderate "Octobrists," M. Stolypin went on his way, and the formal censures passed on his action by the Duma and the Council of Empire only attested the impotence of both. But in the autumn the end came tragically. On September 14th, at a gala opera performance at Kieff, M. Stolypin was shot by an assassin. On September 18th he died of his wounds. He was succeeded as Prime Minister by his colleague, M. Kokovtsoff.

In Portugal the Republic, which resulted from the revolution of 1910, established its ground. The Provisional Government held a general election of deputies to a Constituent Assembly at the end of May. A Republican majority was returned, which on June 19th formally sanctioned the abolition of the Monarchy and exile of the Royal Family. A Constitution having been passed, Dr. Manuel Arriaga was on August 24th elected President of the Republic, which on August 25th was formally recognised by France, and on September 10th by Great Britain and other Powers. Meantime, Royalist exiles, with something like connivance on the part of Spain, were planning to invade North Portugal from the Spanish frontier. Their raid was designed for October 5th, the anniversary of the King's flight, and on or about that day considerable bands crossed the border. Most of them gathered under the leadership of Captain Couceiro; but he after occupying a few small towns, was easily outnumbered and outgeneralled by the Government troops, and on October 18th re-entered Spain with the relics of his force.

THE MEXICAN REVOLUTION.

In Mexico a revolution occurred, whereby President Diaz (who had been virtual autocrat of the country for a quarter of a century) was dethroned, and a Republic on more genuinely Republican lines took his place. The beginnings of the revolution were in 1910, when at the Presidential election Señor Madero dared to stand against Diaz, and was treated by the latter as a criminal and fled the country. Returning in the new year he raised an armed rebellion near the American frontier, which became serious in March. The struggle was complicated by frontier incidents with the United

States, but the rebels steadily gained ground. On May 4th, after an armistice, formal negotiations were opened between them and Diaz. Delays were occasioned by Diaz' personal obstinacy, but the rebel successes continued, and finally on May 22nd a preliminary peace agreement was signed at Juarez. On May 25th Diaz resigned. A period of provisional Government followed, during which preparation was made for the new régime. This ended definitely on October 17th, when Señor Madero was unanimously elected the new President.

REVOLT IN CHINA.

Towards the end of the year a remarkable revolt broke out in China. Its cause was a deep-seated discontent with the Manchu Government; its occasion was the conclusion (on May 20th) of a European loan of 10 millions sterling to build railways in Hu-nan, Hu-peh, and Sze-chuan provinces. The original idea, when the main Chinese railways were projected, was that the provinces should build them. Later, mainly on strategical grounds, the Pekin Government had decided to build, own, and work them itself. This was not so much objected to; what was objected to by the Chinese reformers was the raising of large foreign loans for the purpose. They had the disastrous example of the Manchurian railways always before their eyes. The revolt began in the great Western province of Central China, Sze-chuan. The provincial Parliament there tried to organise a passive resistance campaign, and on its leaders being arrested there was an armed rising. This was early in September. The course of events was imperfectly reported owing to the telegraphs being cut; but it is known that some of the modern-drilled troops mutinied, and that the provincial

capital was besieged, while the number killed in the fighting was put at 10,000. What suddenly brought the movement home to the world at large was the mutiny of modern-drilled troops and armed rising (October 10th) at Wu-chang, the capital of Hu-peh. This was quickly followed by the rebels capturing (October 12th) the sister town of Han-kow, and Han-yang, with its great arsenal. The capture of other important towns in Hu-peh, Hu-nan, and Sze-chuan was reported on subsequent days. Prince Ching, the Manchu Prime Minister, and his Cabinet felt themselves in such straits that they recalled the great statesman Yuan-shih-kai (whom they had driven from office and banished from public life in February, 1909), and made him Commissioner to suppress the rising. He, however, made excuses which practically amounted to declining. At the time of writing the issue is doubtful; the Pekin Government are bringing up trained troops by the Pekin-Han-kow railway; but the advanced guard of Imperialists at Han-kow itself were on October 18th-19th defeated by the revolutionaries, and driven back northwards along the line.

R. C. K. ENSOR.

THE INTERNATIONAL PEACE MOVEMENT, 1911.

The last year, in regard to the question of international peace, was in many ways a memorable one. On the one hand further determined efforts were made to arrest the burden of armed peace and promote unrestricted arbitration treaties, while congresses and conferences were held to improve international friendship and mutual understanding. On the other hand, there were certain events, notably the Italo-Turkish War, that seemed to give the peace movement a direct set back.

Perhaps the outstanding feature of the year was the determined effort to make war impossible between the United Kingdom and the United States by the adoption of a **treaty of arbitration** under which the two countries should refer not only commercial

disputes, but questions involving points of national honour to arbitration.

But, in spite of the partial failure of this attempt, details of which are given on page 179, it yet remains true that unrestricted treaties constitute one of the great demands of the pacifists of the world, and it may be well to recall the fact that a number of such treaties already exist.

A further great peace movement has been rendered possible during the year by the **Carnegie Peace Fund**. In December, 1910, Mr. Carnegie gave the magnificent sum of £2,000,000 for the promotion of international peace. This, in the first instance, was a great aid to the movement in America, but, in effect, it is shared by the whole world. A conference, attended by influential

INTERNATIONAL PEACE MOVEMENT, 1911—(con.)

delegates from various countries, was held during the first fortnight of August at Berne, for the organisation of future propaganda.

Special committees were presided over by Professor Philippovich (Vienna), Mr. F. W. Hirst (London), Professor Luigi Brentano (Munich), and Professor J. B. Clark (Columbia University). These arranged for the preparation of works on questions dealing with the various aspects of the "Causes and Effects of War"; on "Armaments in Time of Peace"; on "Unifying Influences in International Life," especially those connected with finance; and for the classification of important works on international law and kindred subjects, with a view to securing their inclusion in the public libraries of Washington and the Hague.

During its sittings in London, the Imperial Conference approved the **Declaration of London**, and that confirmed the Government in their decision to press forward during the session the Naval Prize Bill, by which effect is given to this important development of international relations in time of war. Of course, from a pacifist point of view, the main interest in the Declaration lies in the admission of the Powers of a reference from National Prize Court to an International Court—thus constituting another step towards the creation of an international juridical system.

During January the Labour Party held a conference at Leicester on Disarmament and the International Situation. Some differences of opinion on the methods of opposing militarism were shown; but the general result was to prove that organised **British Labour** is, as a party, solid for international peace and arbitration.

Undoubtedly the outbreak of war has been a set-back, for Italy has ignored the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes of the Hague Conference, to which she gave her adhesion, and, in the present state of European affairs, there is no effective way by which a nation bitten with the Imperialistic and Jingo spirit can be brought to book. The hope of the world lies in the increased growth of an enlightened and controlling public opinion, in the immense costliness of modern war, and in treaties which impose delay and consequent cooling of war mania.

The Morocco question, which dominated European affairs during the summer, has had the regrettable effect of immensely increasing the tension and consequent danger of war between Germany and ourselves. It is not too much to say that the relations of the two countries have become the supreme question from a pacifist point of view. For, apart from the dangerous situa-

tion in which the two peoples find themselves, the mad race to maintain or to gain naval supremacy is one that involves the whole world. Whilst England and Germany pile up armaments, France, Italy, Austria, Russia, America, and Japan are compelled to do the same, and even little countries like Holland are involved in the same ruinous competition. Many unofficial efforts are being made to improve relations. Meetings, such as that held by the International Arbitration League at the Church House in April, when Professor Sieper, of Munich, spoke on England and Germany, and the Lord Chancellor presided; the work of the Anglo-German Friendship Societies; the Associated Councils of the Churches; Students' Unions' and Adult Schools' tours in England and Germany; and such admirable speeches as those of Lord Haldane at Oxford in August, and Sir Frank Lascelles at the Church Congress in October, do much to improve things. Moreover, the peoples realise that they have no real quarrel. Treptow Park and its Peace Meeting of 200,000 Berliners is evidence to the point, as well as the response of the Trade Union Congress at Newcastle. What, then, is the root of the trouble? It surely lies in the dangerous secrecy in which foreign policy is enshrined. The Peace movement of the civilised world, which is primarily a movement of awakening democracies, must obtain an effective control of foreign policy, and must insist that such policy be shaped in the future, not in the interests of syndicates for war materials and of sections whose professional and commercial prosperity is concerned, but on behalf of the peoples of the world whose intercourse, entente, and sympathy is ever increasing. Meanwhile the Peace organisations will continue this year the campaign already initiated of pressing upon the Governments, Parliaments, and peoples, for a generous, full, and open understanding between the British and the German Empires.

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INDIA AND THE DURBAR.

The year in India has been notable chiefly on account of the preparations for the visit of the King and Queen—an unprecedented event in the history of British India—and the holding of a great Coronation Durbar at Delhi. The announcement of the intended visit was made at the end of 1910, and the organisation of the immense undertaking was immediately begun. The final programme was settled during the summer, and at the time of our going to press it stands as follows:—

Their Majesties embark on the new P. & O. steamer "Medina" on November 11th, and are due at Bombay on December 2nd. They arrive at Delhi on December 7th, and make their State entry on that day into the city. The Durbar ceremony will be held on the 12th, which is a public holiday throughout India, and the Military Review on the 14th. On the 16th their Majesties leave Delhi—the King for a shoot in the Nepal Territory, the Queen to spend Christmas at Agra, and pay a brief visit to Rajputana. Calcutta, reached on December 30th, is to be the scene of an historical pageant and of a week's engagements, at the end of which (on January 7th) the King and Queen embark for England, arriving on January 20th.

Delhi, the historic capital of Hindustan, is the recognised theatre of the Imperial Durbars, the first of which was held in 1877, by Lord Lytton, for the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India. The second, organised by Lord Curzon, was held in January, 1903, for the proclamation of Edward VII. The site of the Durbar Camp is the plain beyond the northern Ridge, from which the assault was directed upon Delhi during the siege of 1857. The broad waste is transformed, and there springs into being a wonderful city of canvas, which on the present occasion covers about 25 square miles—a city planned and organised upon the most modern principles. Around the central Royal Camp are grouped the camps of the Viceroy and the provincial Governments, the visitors, and the Indian Princes. Gardens are created; roads to the length of more than 60 miles are made; there is a railway which brings every part of the camp into connection with the Durbar Amphitheatre.

theatre—an immense double horse-shoe to accommodate 100,000 spectators. An electric lighting system has been installed—the largest overhead system in the world; markets have been established, and every conceivable arrangement made for the smooth running of the temporary city, which will disappear completely after the break-up of the assembly. As in 1903, the ceremonies will take place partly in the camp and partly in the Delhi Fort—the palace of the Moghul Emperors—the day before the Durbar being fixed for the popular fête and display of fireworks on the open space between the Fort and the Cathedral Mosque. According to immemorial custom, the Monarch on occasions of this kind makes a pronouncement to his people, it being understood that the message is accompanied by the declaration of some definite public benefit. There has been much speculation in India as to the nature of the boon to be promised by King George.

Over a great part of Western and North-Western India the monsoon rains were during 1911 either very late or seriously in defect. For a time the gravest fears were entertained lest the failure of the rains should plunge the country into a great famine, involving especially the Punjab and the United Provinces, Central India, and Gujerat. A welcome change occurred during September, good rain falling in most of the provinces. It came, however, too late to save the winter crops over many districts of the dry tracts, which are suffering from a scarcity threatening to be severe. The lack of fodder in the neighbourhood of Delhi and the danger of general scarcity led the Government to cancel the military manœuvres which were to have taken place in connection with the Durbar. This change in the programme meant the reduction of the troops assembled at Delhi from nearly 100,000 to something over 50,000.

The winter of 1910-11 was marked by a recrudescence of plague on a terrible scale, the mortality not beginning to decline until the end of May. During the first half of the year the plague deaths in the whole of India, according to the official returns, reached a total of 650,690.

The Political Year in India.

The political year in India has been markedly uneventful by comparison with its immediate predecessors. The Viceroy, Lord Hardinge, entered upon the duties of his office in November, 1909. The new Councils, which came into being under Lord Morley's Act, began work at the opening of 1910, and have earned commendations from all sides. There has been a decided lull in the prosecutions for sedition, and political crimes of violence have been very

infrequent. Judgment in two cases of exceptional importance was delivered in August. The remarkable Midnapore affair, which in one form or another has been in the courts since the summer of 1908, reached a further stage with the award by Mr. Justice Fletcher in the Calcutta High Court, of Rs.1,000 damages and costs against a magistrate (Mr. Donald Weston) and his police subordinates for wrongful imprisonment and malicious prosecution.

tion of certain prominent citizens of Midnapore in connection with an alleged conspiracy. The case, which is being financed by the Bengal Government on behalf of its servants, has gone to appeal. In the Dacca conspiracy trial, which had been going on for 12 months, the Sessions Judge acquitted eight of the prisoners and sentenced 36 to varying terms of imprisonment. The leading accused, a prominent Bengali Nationalist named Pulin Behari Das, and two others were sentenced to transportation for life. An appeal to the Calcutta High Court is pending. In October, Mr. Bepin Chandra Pal, on landing at Bombay after three years' residence in England, was prosecuted for sedition in respect of an article on the bomb outrages published in London in 1909. He pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to a month's imprisonment.

At the end of March, Mr. Noel Williamson, a political officer in the service of the Eastern Bengal Government, was killed with his party on the Dihon River by Abor tribesmen belonging to one of the wild hill tracts beyond the Assam border. A punitive expedition, under the command of Major-General Bower, was dispatched against the Abors in October. It consisted of the 1st Battalion 8th Gurkhas, the 32nd Sikh Pioneers, one company of Sappers, with the 1st Battalion 2nd Gurkhas in reserve. The purpose of the expedition was to inflict punishment on the whole tribe, which, it was estimated, might be able to put about 10,000 fighting men into the field.

A notable feature of the year in India has been the activity displayed in the field of education. The Hon. G. K. Gokhale, leader of the Indian members of the Viceroy's Council, has been conducting a vigorous campaign on behalf of his Primary Education Bill, which is receiving extensive support, and much progress has been made with the schemes for two new Universities—one Hindu and the other Mahomedan. Large funds have been raised for both projects, and the promoters have secured promises of characters subject to the Government's conditions being fulfilled.

The Opium Trade.—At the end of 1907 an agreement was entered into between the Indian Government and China, in accordance with which India undertook to reduce each year the supply of opium for three years on condition that China also reduced proportionately her home area of opium growing. The revenue derived by the Indian Government from opium during this period of reduction did not, however, diminish, because the restriction of supply brought with it inflated prices. The revenue figures were:—

1906-7 .. £3,747,236 1908-9 .. £4,648,700
1907-8 .. £3,575,545 1909-10 .. £4,418,200

In May, 1911, an agreement was signed which aims at the eventual extinction of the export of opium from India to China. The second article of the treaty states that the export of opium from India shall cease in less than seven years if proof is given that the production of native opium has completely ceased.

POPULATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

At the June meeting of the Royal Statistical Society a paper on the growth of the population of the British Empire was read by Sir J. Athelstane Baines, C.S.I., from which we have extracted the following figures. The population in 1841 was estimated at 203½ million, and rose in 1911 to 418½ million, made up as follows:—

United Kingdom 45½ million, India 315 million, Dominions, Possessions, and Protectorate, 58½ millions.

Although Australia and New Zealand have increased their population more than 2,000-fold, they are yet so sparsely inhabited that there are not two persons for every square mile. India, with her smaller increase, has 229 inhabitants to the square mile, and it is noteworthy that her population (315 million, according to the recent census returns) forms nearly 73 per cent. of the 418 million subjects of the British Crown.

The square mileage of the Empire which supports these vast populations is 11,331,000, and has increased by 2½ million square miles since 1841.

The total increase of 215,514,000 in the population since 1841 is made up in this way:—

By acquisition of territory since 1841, 55,543,000 persons.

By growth on territories British in 1841, 138,534,000 persons.

By growth on newly-acquired territory, 21,437,000 persons.

Of the enormous increase of 106 per cent. in the last 70 years, 68·2 is accounted for by the expansion of the population of the territories over which the British flag flew in 1841; the remaining 37·8 is credited to annexations since that date. The United Kingdom and India, the oldest and most closely settled sections of the Empire, naturally show the smallest relative increase. The relative increase, taking 1841 as 100, is as follows, and the increased closeness of settlement is as follows for the United Kingdom, India, and the Dominions:—

| Parts of the British Empire. | Relative increase of Population. 1841—100. | | Persons per sq. mile. | | |
|--|--|-------|-----------------------|------|------|
| | 1881 | 1911 | 1841 | 1881 | 1911 |
| United Kingdom | 130 | 169 | 221 | 237 | 372 |
| India | 133 | 158 | 144 | 192 | 229 |
| Canada and Newfoundland | 329 | 542 | 0·35 | 1·20 | 1·99 |
| Australia and New Zealand .. | 1,291 | 2,561 | 0·07 | 0·90 | 1·79 |
| Cape and Natal .. | 484 | 1,076 | 1·1 | 5·4 | 11·9 |
| South Africa (including new territories) | 682 | 3,337 | 1·1 | 6·4 | 6·5 |

SOUTH AFRICAN PROBLEMS.

General Botha faced the first session of the Union Parliament with a clear majority of a dozen over all other parties. The Labour Party of four was in alliance with him, and some 13 Natal members were detached from party connections, but inclined to support the Government. The appointment of Colonel Leuchars to the vacant Ministry of Commerce carried with it the accession of seven Natal members to the Government side, which is thus numerically very strong. In reality the existing party divisions are likely to be transitional. The big Boer farmers on the Nationalist benches have some economic sympathy, so far as the relations between employer and employed are concerned, with the mine owners, who are the backbone of the Unionists. There are Free Traders and Protectionists in both camps. Neither party is united on the question whether the railways should be run to assist the Budget or for the advantage of the consumer. Again the colour issue divides along geographical rather than party lines. The Cape members, whatever their party connection, incline to a liberal policy towards the blacks; the Transvaal and Orange Free State members, whatever their party connection, incline to a repressive policy. In Parliament itself there has been very little party conflict, and, owing to the essentially routine or formal work which has chiefly occupied it, there has been little pressure to cause a crystallisation of parties. Parliament has had to complete the work of unification, by unifying laws, civil service, finances, &c.

The first session of Parliament lasted 98 days, and closed on April 25th. Some 50 Bills passed, mostly of a formal kind.

The Natal poll tax and the Cape income tax were abolished, but little more was done to unify taxation; a bill for unifying the marriage laws was dropped because it raised the colour question; the university could not be established owing to the rivalry of the various colleges. The most original law was a Post Office Act, which gives the Government power to grapple

with the shipping ring and rebates. No company granting rebates can have the mails contract; as yet no tender for the mails under the new law has been accepted, but General Botha has said that the Government will build its own ships if there is no other way out of the difficulty.

The most contentious political topics—immigration and education—hardly cropped up in Parliament, but were much discussed on the platform and the press. The Boers and the labour party are indisposed to *state-aided immigration*, the Boers because they fear for their majority, the labour party because they fear for wages. Both these arguments have precisely the opposite effect with the Unionists, who are an English and Capitalist party. Ministers have spoken in somewhat varying voices on the question, but General Botha on his return from South Africa, struck the middle line by declaring that the Government would welcome, but not subsidise immigration, and that its first duty was to assist South Africans.

The education is really a language dispute. Education is a provincial matter, and in the Orange Free State the Hertzog Act made the teaching of certain subjects compulsory in both Dutch and English. The Unionists pressed for the right of the parent to select the language of instruction, in the confidence that that would mean the death of Dutch. The Union Parliament handed the dispute over to a committee, the majority of which offered a compromise, under which the home language is to be the language of instruction up to the 4th standard, with the option to choose after that. This compromise will probably be adopted; it has been approved by the Union Parliament.

During General Botha's absence in Europe, General Hertzog came into prominence as the leader of the more uncompromising Dutch section, but he has neither attempted nor is likely to dispute with General Botha the leadership of the Nationalist Party. General Botha's prestige and influence remain unimpaired, and there is not likely to be any reconstitution of party forces until the Union comes face to face with the gravest of all South African problems—the colour question.

A LABOUR GOVERNMENT IN AUSTRALIA.

The first session of the Labour Commonwealth Parliament occupied the last months of 1910, and was very fruitful of legislation. The House sat 10 or 12 hours at a stretch, and on one occasion for 40 hours. Among the Bills passed were:—

(1) *Land taxation* to raise £1,000,000 a year. The purpose of this is to break up large estates and encourage closer settlements, as well as normal.

(2) *The financial relations* between states and commonwealth were settled by a grant to the states of 25s. per head for 10 years.

(3) *Compulsory military service* was established as from 1st January, 1911, on an even larger scale than contemplated by Lord

Kitchener. The enrolling of recruits has proceeded very satisfactorily.

(4) *The Old Age Pension* system was expanded.

(5) *The building and equipment* of an Australian navy out of revenue was begun. The Opposition party desired to build it out of loans, and to accept from the Imperial Government a maintenance grant of £250,000 a year. The basis of the *Australian navy scheme* was settled by the Defence Conference of 1910, and Admiral Henderson was sent to Australia to advise on its execution. He drafted a rather sensational report outlining a scheme to cover 22 years, under which Australia was to spend on her fleet between 10 per cent. to 15 per cent. of the

sum spent by Great Britain. No party has ventured to commit itself to this grandiose project.

(6) *Penny postage* was inaugurated.

(7) The Northern Territory was transferred to the Commonwealth.

(8) Bounties were granted to make the Queensland sugar industry a "white" industry.

(9) Power to control and nationalise monopolies was given to the Commonwealth.

(10) Unlimited control was given to the Commonwealth over industrial legislation.

These last two Bills had to be confirmed by a **Referendum**, because they involved a change in the constitution. Their general purpose was to enable the Commonwealth Parliament to deal with all economic and social questions, so as to generalise conditions throughout Australia; their general constitutional effect was to weaken the powers of the States for the advantage of the Commonwealth. The preference of the Labour Party for a centralised authority is determined by (a) the fact that the State Parliaments have reactionary oligarchic Second Chambers opposed to social reform; (b) the State Parliaments, if they would, could not grapple with problems extending beyond the borders of a single State.

The Referendum was fiercely contested, and on April 26th the Government's proposals were rejected by heavy majorities in practically every State. The Labour Party attributed its rebuff in part to the opposition manifested by the leaders of the State Labour Parties, in particular Mr. Holman, Attorney-General of the N.S.W. Labour Government. The result has been a rather serious split in the Labour forces, and in N.S.W. the Labour Government, holding office by the narrowest of majorities, and on sufferance from the Independent Liberals, who threaten to withdraw their support, is tottering to its fall. The

practical equality of parties in the N.S.W. Parliament has led to an unedifying dispute, accompanied with unpleasing scenes in the Chamber, about the election of a Speaker. The Federal Government reiterates its determination to persist with its proposals, but the Referenda will be delayed for submission simultaneously with the next General Election.

The second session of the Federal Parliament was opened on September 5th by **Lord Denman**, the new Governor-General, who has succeeded Lord Dudley. The Government programme includes Bills to establish a **Commonwealth Bank**, to amend the Conciliation Acts, and to construct a **trans-continental railway** with a uniform gauge, a project of great strategical as well as social importance. The establishment of the Commonwealth capital at **Yass-Canberra** is being pushed on, and a competition for a complete architectural scheme covering the whole city has been opened.

Economically, 1911 was a very prosperous year in Australia, although prices are rising heavily, and there were some serious labour disputes, particularly in Queensland. It is agreed by impartial observers that, in spite of the caucus system, the Labour Government has readily accepted reasonable suggestions from the Opposition in the course of legislation, and that Parliamentary debates, though brief, have been frequent and profitable. In August the South Australia Legislative Assembly attempted to remove the deadlock with the Legislative Council by sending up a Veto Bill, which, however, the Council threw out. In West Australia, in September, a General Election, based upon the single transferable vote, resulted in a Labour majority of 10. Thus Labour rules in three of the States as well as in the Commonwealth.

BRITISH v. AMERICAN ENTERPRISE.

In view of the general tendency to complain of lack of enterprise and adaptability on the part of the British merchant, it is worth while to quote a New Zealand instance of British success against American competition.

An American commercial agent actively engaged in New Zealand took pains to ascertain why more American electrical appliances are not sold in that country. The following memorandum was submitted to him by the principal of a leading firm of electrical engineers:—

"As a rule, I find that for the same money better value is obtained in Great Britain, and the public taste seems to favour the British article when prices are the same; but when going further into the merits and demerits of the manufactures of the two countries the following three reasons

make me prefer the British market when the home costs are the same:—

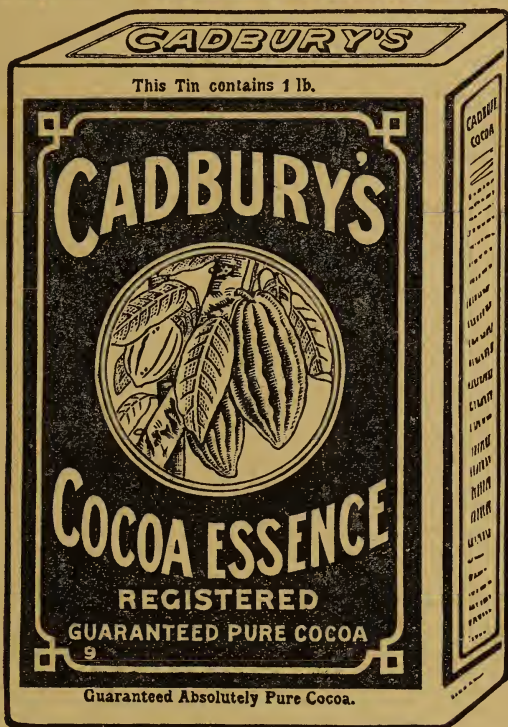
"(1) The preferential Customs tariff at present in force treats American goods as being of foreign manufacture, and as a result the duty on them is 50 per cent. higher.

"(2) It has been my experience that before American houses will give a paying trade discount arrangements have to be made either to send cash with order or take up a demand draft. The terms offered by competing British firms are much more liberal; 60 and 90 days' sight are frequently given, and the receiver of the goods has a chance to turn them over before payment is actually made.

"(3) The time taken by American suppliers to effect delivery of an order is usually longer than that of British, or even some European, firms, and the home charges are usually much heavier in America than in the British Isles."



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 HAVING THE GREATEST STRENGTH
 AND THE FINEST FLAVOUR.

CADBURY, BOURNVILLE.

GENERAL STATISTICS OF

| | Popula- tion, Census or Esti- mated. 1911. | Birth Rate per Thou. | Death Rate per Thou. | Net Immigrants. | | Area. | Total Imp'ts. | Total Exports. | Imports of Bullion and Specie. |
|------------------------|---|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|---------|------------------|-------------------|--|
| | | | | Brit- ish. | Non- Brit- ish. | | | | |
| India | 315001000 | 39·52 | 33·20 | 96653† | 5452015 | 1773000 | 89136993 | 140111851 | 26514704 |
| Canada | 7170000 | — | — | 59790 | 149004 | 3372000 | 80517676 | 61922985 | 1236490 |
| Newfoundland | 234588 | 30·01 | 15·43 | 4664 | — | 43000 | 2337440 | 2194680 | — |
| S. African Union | 5958499 | — | — | — | — | 473000 | 40105532 | 55429241 | 2191093 |
| Australia | 4449495 | 26·40 | 10·22 | 34556 | 1991 | 2975000 | 59456238 | 74497627 | 54197\$ |
| New Zealand | 1007800 | 27·29\$ | 9·22\$ | 4876 | 157 | 105000 | 17051000 | 22180000 | 303000 |

* Of this only £48,000,000 was non-productive debt. † Total non-Indian resident population (including troops, &c.).

THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE, 1911.

The greatest achievement of the Imperial Conference of 1911 was the increase of confidence and frankness between the British Government and the sister States. Because this main achievement was in the way of greater confidence it necessarily did not bulk large in the official report. Its consequence, nevertheless, can hardly be over-rated. So long as the Dominion Governments are in the position of outsiders with regard to the foreign policy of Great Britain they can take no reasoned and consecutive part in the common work of Imperial Defence. On this occasion the Foreign Secretary made a frank confidential statement to the premiers on the foreign policy of this country, so that their schemes of defence may bear a real relation to the necessities of the situation. Further, the Declaration of London was submitted to the judgment of the Conference, and it was agreed that henceforward the Dominions should be consulted, as opportunity permits, in regard to international agreements affecting the Dominions. It is inevitable that the British Foreign Office, and that office alone, should be responsible for the foreign policy of the Empire, but henceforward the Dominions will have the option of withdrawing their co-operation from certain international agreements in which they consider their interests to be adversely affected. Their consent

has, in the past, always been sought for commercial treaties in which they are involved, and Canada has successfully made good her claim to negotiate commercial terms for herself. In many ways the Conference was disappointing. The best laid schemes, from whatever quarter advanced, proved to be vulnerable at one point or another because of the complexity of the interests involved.

The Conference was practically united on the questions of an Imperial wireless telegraphic system, of the cheapening of cable rates, of the Imperial Court of Appeal, of emigration, of competition between British and foreign shipping, of copyright, &c. On the subject of naturalisation, on an Imperial system of Labour Exchanges, and still more on the settlement of Indians within other parts of the Empire conflicting interests made it difficult to find agreement at all. Sir Joseph Ward's ambitious scheme for an Imperial Parliament of Defence met with no encouragement, and even Mr. Harcourt's more modest suggestion for a standing consultative committee of the Imperial Conference was wrecked by the suspicion that its functions, limited though they were, might intrench on responsible government as understood in the Dominions.

This, and some of the other questions which came before the conference are treated below.

POSITION UNRIVALLED IN LONDON.

LANGHAM HOTEL, REGENT STREET and
PORTLAND PLACE, W.

Family Hotel of the First Order.

THE BRITISH DOMINIONS (1910).

| Exports of Bullion and Specie. | Revenue from | | Expenditure. | Debt 1911. | Shipping Tonnage. | | Sailing Register Tonn'g. | |
|--------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------|------------|-------------------|----------|--------------------------|------------------|
| | Direct Taxation. | Indirect Taxation. | | | Entered. | Cleared. | | |
| 4752308 | 25310100 | 29553800 | 51473200 | 275064009* | 7275071 | 7322020 | 718553 | India |
| 1236190 | 20885530 | | 23711460 | 68955200 | 23035159 | 21533032 | 718553 | Canada |
| — | 640322 | 640322 | 4737651 | 1858161 | 2858161 | 9055 | — | Newfoundland |
| — | 8754000 | 16890281e | 116500000 | — | — | — | — | South African U. |
| 5366291§ | 15540669 | 16389797 | 249000000 | 4634721 | 4806120 | 404091 | — | Australia |
| 27736 | 1459368 | 2786490 | 9343000 | 81000000 | 1263935 | 1253878 | 230614 | New Zealand |

§ 1909. || Commonwealth only. / Census of 1901; other figures for 1909. e Estimated.

AN IMPERIAL COURT OF APPEAL.

The Australian Government proposed at the Imperial Conference that the judicial functions now exercised by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council should be vested in an **Imperial Appeal Court**, which should also be the final Court of Appeal for Great Britain and Ireland. New Zealand suggested the inclusion of judicial representatives of the Dominions. Eventually, it was left to the Imperial Government to devise a scheme in accordance with the ideas expressed at the Conference.

Appeals from the United Kingdom are heard in the House of Lords, which in its judicial aspect consists of the Lord Chancellor and four Lords of Appeal, together with any previous Lord Chancellor and any peer who has held judicial office. Three judges form a quorum, but in practice four usually sit. The Judges who sit in the Privy Council are the same persons, with the assistance of two Judges with special knowledge of Indian law, and occasional assistance in accordance with an Act passed in 1895 from Judges of Supreme Colonial Courts who are also Privy Counsellors. These latter are at present: Lord de Villiers (South Africa), Sir Samuel Way, Sir Samuel Griffith, and Sir E. Barton (Australia), and until recently, the late Sir H. Taschereau, who sat fairly frequently. As these judges are engaged in judicial work in the Dominions, and no salary is provided for their work on the Privy Council, it is evident that their advice can rarely be obtained. In 1910, the Judicial Committee

disposed of 78 cases, 41 of which came from India, and 17 from Canada.

In 1900, when the Australian Constitution was under discussion, Lord Haldane suggested that the House of Lords and the Privy Council should be amalgamated so as to constitute one strong Court of Appeal for the whole Empire. A special conference called in 1901 recommended that Judges of high standing in the Courts of the Dominions and the Crown Colonies should be appointed to the Judicial Committee, the appointment to be for fifteen years or for life, and to be accompanied by a sufficient salary and pension. At the Colonial Conference of 1907 the question was again raised, with the result that in 1908 an Act was passed enabling Colonial Judges to sit as assessors.

The Government proposals, drawn up after the Imperial Conference of 1911, provide that two new Law Lords should be appointed to strengthen the two Courts of Appeal, and a step towards the formation of a Supreme Court of Appeal by the suggestion that, except when it is necessary for the House of Lords and the Judicial Committee to sit simultaneously, the Judges should sit in full strength in each Court. It is also proposed that the practice of the Judicial Committee should be modified, so that any dissentient Judge might be permitted to record his reasons for dissent.

These changes were embodied in the **Appellate Jurisdiction Bill**, introduced in the House of Lords by Lord Haldane.

British Share in Dominions Trade.

The Report of H.M. Trade Commissioners in the self-governing Dominions gives the following statement of the share of the United Kingdom in the production of the commodities imported by the British overseas communities.

PERCENTAGE OF BRITISH IMPORTS TO TOTAL IMPORTS.

| | 1908. | 1909. | 1910. |
|----------------------|---------|---------|-------|
| Canada | 25.5 .. | 24.7 .. | 25.8 |
| Australia | 50.8 .. | 50.5 .. | 50.3 |
| S. African Union) .. | — .. | — .. | 60.9 |
| New Zealand | 60.5 .. | 62.0 .. | 62.7 |

Loss of Life at Sea.

The number of lives lost in the British sea-going Merchant Service during 1910 was 1,300—1,154 masters and seamen and 146 passengers. Of this total, 268 were ascribed to sailing ships, a proportion of 1 in 73 of the persons employed. In steamships the total death-roll was 1,032, a proportion in the former case of 1 in 151. The number of seamen engaged in the shipping industry last year was 242,787, as against 241,499 in 1909.

THE IMPERIAL MACHINE.

Proposals for a Closer Organisation of the Empire.

The constitution and procedure of the Imperial Conference is regulated by the resolution passed at the Conference of 1907:—

The Imperial Conference is held every four years to discuss questions of common interest between H.M. Government and the Governments of the self-governing Dominions. The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom is *ex-officio* President, and the Prime Ministers of the dominions *ex-officio* members of the Conference. The Secretary of State for the Colonies is also an *ex-officio* member, and in the absence of the President he presides. Other ministers of the Governments concerned may also be delegates to the Conference, but each discussion is conducted by not more than two representatives of each Government, and each Government has one vote.

Subsidiary Conferences on urgent matters may be held between the meetings of the Conference, to which the Governments will send representatives. Such Conferences were the Defence Conference of 1909 and the Copyright Conference of 1910.

Proposals made for the appointment of a permanent organisation to secure continuity in the work of the Conference during the four years interval elapsing between them have hitherto failed to meet with the approbation of all the parties concerned.

At the Conference of 1911 the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Lewis Harcourt, put forward a memorandum for the appointment of a Standing Advisory Committee of the Imperial Conference, without executive powers, which should meet at more or less regular intervals for the transaction of business referred to it by the Colonial Secretary with the consent of the Dominion Governments. It would be concerned with

matters dealt with by the last Conference or having to do with the approaching one. Its suggested constitution was: The Colonial Secretary, the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, the Permanent Under-Secretary, the Assistant Under-Secretary for the Dominions, the Secretary to the Imperial Conference, the High Commissioner or other representative of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa respectively, a representative of Newfoundland, and a secretary who should be chosen from the assistant secretaries of the Imperial Conference.

Mr. Harcourt's memorandum, framed to meet the supposed desires of the Dominion Governments, was not made the subject of a formal resolution, and was not pressed, in face of the view generally taken that the years between the Conferences were successfully bridged by the existing machinery of the Colonial Office. The real objection to any permanent advisory body was phrased by Sir Wilfred Laurier when he stated that no one should give advice of any kind except a man who is responsible directly to the people. Mr. Harcourt explained that he made a regular practice of seeing the High Commissioners of the Dominions, so that they already had an informal opportunity of raising once a month questions affecting the Dominions. Matters affecting individual dominions would in no case come before the Committee, and would be settled as before by communication between the Secretary of State and the Government concerned, through the Governor General. In wider questions the practice of subsidiary conferences had proved satisfactory.

Sir Joseph Ward's Scheme.

Sir Joseph Ward put forward a far-reaching scheme for the formation of an Imperial Council of State, which he withdrew in face of general opposition. His Imperial Council widened out into a proposition for an Imperial Parliament of 300 members, elected on a population basis, and forming a kind of senate in which each Dominion was to be represented by two votes. This Parliament was to control naval and foreign affairs, treaties, and the making of peace and war. This ambitious scheme was hardly taken seriously by the Conference. It was practically disposed by Sir Wilfred Laurier's criticism:—

"What Sir Joseph Ward has proposed," he said, "is not an Advisory Council; it is a legislative body to be elected by the people of the United Kingdom and the Dominions beyond the seas—a legislative body, I say, with power to create expenditure and no power to create revenue. Now if there is one system which I think is indefensible it is the creation of a body

which should have the power to expend at its own sweet will without having the responsibility of providing for the revenue to carry on the expenditure. . . .

"All the Governments would be dumb agents to carry out these resolutions. The Chancellor of the Exchequer would simply have to provide so much, in Canada we should have to provide so much, in order that various munitions of war might be purchased, and so in Australia, and so in South Africa, and so in Newfoundland."

It was obvious that the scheme was the negation of the first principles of responsible government. Mr. Asquith made it clear for his part that the government of the United Kingdom could not share its authority in the conduct of foreign policy, the conclusion of treaties, and the making of peace and war.

The sense of the Conference was in favour of the existing system and of making greater use of subsidiary conferences for the settlement of urgent questions.

CANADIAN RECIPROCITY.

The Fate of the American Agreement.

In the summer of 1910, Sir Wilfrid Laurier had an opportunity, during a political tour in the Canadian West, of assuring himself of the strength of the movement for lowering the tariff barrier between Canada and the United States. The Prime Minister received a deputation of 800 farmers at Ottawa, who asked for a revision of the Tariff, with an extension of domestic railway facilities, notably by the construction of the Hudson Bay railway.

During the year, informal negotiations with a view to mutual tariff concessions were set on foot between Canada and the United States, and in January, 1911, the Canadian Finance Minister, Mr. Fielding, and Mr. Pater-son, Minister of Customs, went to Washington to discuss the matter. They were introduced to the President by the British Ambassador at Wash-ington, Mr. Bryce, who held a watch- ing brief for Imperial interests. He was assured that the advantages ac-ruing under the proposed agree-ment to Canadian over British manu-factures in the U.S.A. markets was of no serious importance.

The conversations at Washington resulted in the drafting of an agree-ment for reciprocity, which should not take the form of a formal treaty, but should be brought into force by recip-rocal legislation with an indefinite duration. This method was adopted with a view to leaving the parties free

to rescind such legislation if it became inconvenient.

Under the agreement, 42 items of natural products were to be admitted free of duty; there were reductions of duty on aluminium, lumber, iron ore, and coal slack on the part of the U.S.A., while Canada, on her side, made corresponding reductions on cement, coal, and some other articles. The duty-free articles included stock, wheat, hay, dairy produce, wine, fish, salt, wood, and there were heavy re- ductions on meat, canned fish, biscuits, agricultural machinery, cutlery, motor cars, plate glass, galvanised sheets, &c., &c. Vegetables and fruit were free of duty, with the exception of citrus fruits.

Concessions made to the United States were to be automatically ex- tended to the United Kingdom, and the Canadian Government retained the right to increase preference to British goods if she so desired.

The changes proposed under the Re- ciprocity Agreement related prin- cipally, though not entirely, to natural products, in which there can be no competition between the United King- dom and the U.S.A. The most serious exception was in galvanised and rolled sheets, which had been subject to 5 per cent. duty when coming from the U.S.A., but which had always been admitted free of duty from Great Britain. This handicap in favour of the United Kingdom would, under the agreement, have been removed.

The Canadian Elections.

The Canadian elections of Septem- ber, 1911, were fought almost entirely on the reciprocity agreement question. Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Government ap- pealed to the constituencies for a fresh lease of power in which to pass the legislation necessary to bring the agreement into effect. Mr. Borden, the leader of the Conservatives, a party some of whose tenets would hardly find acceptance except among extreme Radicals in this country, opposed the agreement on the ground that it would tend to weaken the connection between Great Britain and Canada, and to benefit American commerce at the ex- pense both of Great Britain and of Canada.

Undoubtedly, he was materially as- sisted by the rash utterances of some American politicians, who by triumph- antly welcoming this commercial treaty as leading inevitably to polit- ical union between the two countries, contrived to bring into the field against the supporters of the agree- ment the whole force of British and Imperial sentiment in the Dominion. At the same time, Sir Wilfrid Laurier was weakened by the defection of Mr. Henry Bourassa, who in Quebec, the Prime Minister's stronghold, had man-

aged to bring into existence a compact French-Canadian Nationalist party.

Mr. Bourassa was directly opposed to Mr. Borden on questions of Imperial and Canadian defence, and at first had given a qualified support to the Re- ciprocity proposals. Later, however, a common anxiety to depose Sir Wilfrid Laurier from the post of Prime Min- ister, which he had held for 15 years, effected for the moment a union be- tween the Conservatives, who attacked the Government because it was not sufficiently Imperialist, and the Nation- alists, who vehemently assailed its Im- perialistic tendencies.

In the result, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who had entered the contest at the head of a party of 131 members, finds his following in the new Parliament reduced to 89; Mr. Borden commands a party of 126, and Mr. Bourassa can count on 8 votes. Thus the new Prime Minister, Mr. Borden, has a clear majority of 38 over both Liberals and Nationalists. His Cabinet, formed on October 11th, was composed as follows:—

Premier, Mr. R. L. Borden.
Public Works, Mr. F. D. Monk.
Agriculture, Mr. Martin Burrill.
Customs, Dr. J. D. Reid.
Finance, Mr. W. T. White.

Inland Revenue, Mr. Bruno Nantel.
 Interior, the Hon. Robert Rogers.
 Justice, the Hon. C. J. Doherty.
 Labour, Mr. T. W. Crothers.
 Marine and Fisheries, the Hon. J. D. Hazen.
 Militia, Colonel Sam Hughes.

Postmaster-General, the Hon. L. P. Pelletier.
 Railways, the Hon. Frank Cochrane.
 Secretary of State, Dr. W. J. Roche.
 Trade and Commerce, the Hon. George Foster.
 Without Portfolio, Mr. G. H. Per-
 A. E. Kemp, and Senator Loughheed.

Canadian Trade with Great Britain, the United States, and Germany.

The following figures, extracted from the Report of H.M. Trade Commissioner for the Dominion of Canada, throw some light on the market for British goods in Canada, and indirectly on the question of reciprocity:—

"Exports and imports for the fiscal year ending March 31st, 1910, reached unprecedented figures, and the total trade of the Dominion amounting to \$693,000,000.

"The following table shows, for three-year periods, the average imports of merchandise for consumption into Canada in the nine years 1902-10 both from all sources and from the United Kingdom and the United States in particular:—

| Period. | From United Kingdom. | Per cent. of Total. | From United States. | Per cent. of Total. |
|---------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| | \$ | | \$ | |
| 1902-4 | 56,513,460 | 25.50 | 128,848,503 | 58.17 |
| 1905-7* | 70,524,376 | 24.72 | 170,846,568 | 59.91 |
| 1908-10 | 86,811,947 | 25.79 | 197,402,493 | 58.68 |

* The fiscal year 1907 consisted of nine months only.

"In 1896 the upward movement of the total trade began, but although the actual amount of imports from the United Kingdom began to rise, the percentage of the total imports continued to fall until 1901; since that date the decline on the whole has been arrested, but up to 1905, although the volume of British trade had greatly increased, no improvement in its percentage was apparent. From 1905, however, both the volume and percentage of British trade has increased, the first from \$60,000,000 to \$95,000,000, and the latter from 23.98 per cent. to 25.78 per cent. (in 1909-1910). The United States share of the trade increased from \$152,000,000 in 1904-5 to \$217,000,000 in 1909-1910, but decreased in percentage from

60.53 to 58.68. It may be stated that the full preference granted by Canada to British goods began in 1901.

IMPORTS (LESS NATURAL PRODUCTS) INTO CANADA, 1902-1910, FROM ALL SOURCES, FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM AND FROM THE UNITED STATES.

| Period. | Imports from United Kingdom | Per cent. | Imports from United States America. | Per cent. |
|---------|-----------------------------|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----------|
| | \$ | | \$ | |
| 1902-4 | 56,513,460 | 32.7 | 80,093,604 | 46.3 |
| 1905-7* | 70,524,376 | 31.2 | 111,375,323 | 49.3 |
| 1908-10 | 86,811,947 | 33.9 | 117,400,096 | 45.8 |

* The fiscal year 1907 consisted of nine months only.

"The abrogation of the German surtax came into effect on March 1st, 1910, and followed the withdrawal of Germany from the position she had taken up on the British preference question in 1899. The effect of the surtax, amounting to increased duties on German goods of 83½ per cent. beyond the tariff common to all imports (except those from Great Britain) was to reduce the rapidly-growing German imports by 43 per cent. in the three years following 1903, and that in a period when Canadian imports were undergoing rapid expansion. The German imports for the last three years (ending March 31st) were:—

| | |
|------|-------------|
| 1908 | \$6,250,745 |
| 1909 | 6,001,454 |
| 1910 | 7,958,264 |

As far as can be seen, having regard to the limited time during which the new conditions have operated, there is no indication of rapid expansion of German trade owing to the abrogation of the surtax."

British Colonies in Time of War.

In July considerable excitement was aroused by an article in the "Volkstem," urging that if Great Britain were at war the South African Union might remain neutral. In a speech to his constituents, on September 26th, General Botha made it clear that the suggestion was an absurd one, though he took pains to explain that the Union had an absolute right to dispose of its own troops. "There could not be the slightest doubt," he said, "that only the Government of a self-governing Colony could decide whether its ships and troops should be sent out from their own territory to fight elsewhere in the event of Great Britain engaging in war, but the refusal to send ships and troops did not amount to a declaration of neutrality. Neutrality would mean the refusing of all facilities to British warships in the harbours of the Union, such as Simonstown,

where the British Government had spent millions, or no more facilities than the South Africans dared give to the enemy's warships. It would also mean that every British soldier in South Africa would have to be disarmed, and that Great Britain would be treated on exactly the same footing as the enemy. The least difference in treatment would mean the violation of neutrality. It would be impossible for any Dominion of the Empire—Canada as little as South Africa—to remain neutral without cutting itself asunder from the Empire. It was impossible for one portion of the Empire to go to war while another remained neutral. South Africa to-day was in a position of total helplessness. Therefore, the Government would establish a defence force at the earliest moment to relieve the Empire as much as possible of the task of defending the country."

THE COLOUR PROBLEM IN THE EMPIRE.

British Indians in the Dominions.

The efforts of the British Government to foster a sense of Imperial citizenship in India have been hampered, as the India Office complained in a memorandum addressed to the Imperial Conference, by the general attitude of the Dominions to the peoples of India. The Government of India point out that on the Colonial question, and on that alone, responsible moderate opinion in India is at one with the promoters of seditious propaganda. British Indian immigrants are allowed by foreign countries privileges denied them in the Dominions. Their case is no better, and in some instances is even worse, than those of alien Asiatics who have no claim to be regarded as fellow-citizens.

The British Government acknowledge the right of the self-governing nations within the Empire to safeguard themselves from racial admixture, and from the admission of permanent residents whose social and political outlook is at variance with their own. That is to say, they accept the fact that membership of the British Empire does not carry with it the right to reside in any part of the Empire. But it is contended that laws in restriction of emigration and the like should be so framed as to avoid giving needless offence to the just pride of non-European British subjects. In Natal, where Indian indentured labour has been regularly imported for the planters since 1860, the difficulties are caused by the coolies, who have elected to remain in the country after the lapse of their indentures. The number of indentured

coolies in the Colony early in 1911 was about 41,000, but the total coolie population is about 100,000. Grave trouble has arisen over the municipal franchise, the education of Indian children, traders' licences, &c.

It was announced in the Indian Legislative Council in January that emigration of indentured coolies from India to Natal should cease from July, 1911. It was stated that the ground for rescinding the indenture and emigration policy was,

not that there had been any general ill-treatment of the coolies in Natal, but that there was no prospect of solving the difficulties created by the divergence between the Indians and the colonists' standpoint, and no guarantee that Indians would be accepted as permanent citizens of the South African Union after expiration of their indentures.

Meanwhile, in Natal, no new trading licences are being issued, and efforts have been made to terminate after a certain time existing licences.

Legislation in the Transvaal made it practically impossible for any Indian, however distinguished, to enter the country unless he could prove that he was a bona-fide resident before the war. The imprisonment and the deportation of Indians offering passive resistance to the Transvaal law caused much bitter feeling in India.

The action taken by General Botha's Government has allayed irritation, but no settlement has yet been made, as the Government Immigration Bill, under which existing restrictions were to be replaced by a general education test, was withdrawn at the end of the session.

Asiatics in Australia and Canada.

In Australia, legislation against Asiatic emigrants is directed against Chinese and Japanese labour, though it also operates against Indian labour. Even the most distinguished Indians visiting Australia obtain certificates from their local governments. A Bill passed by the Australian Parliament for the exclusion of goods carried in ships employing Lascars from preferential treatment did not come into operation owing to the attitude of the British Government, which is a partner to the mail contract. By the New Zealand Shipping Bill of 1910, which was, however, held over for the Royal Assent, it was sought to impose heavy penalties, amounting in practice to prohibition, on ships employing Asiatics in the New Zealand trade. From British Columbia, new Indian immigrants are virtually excluded by a clause permitting the exclusion of immigrants who have come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native or a naturalised citizen, and upon a through ticket purchased in that country or

prepaid in Canada. Every Asiatic immigrant must possess £40 unless he comes from a country with which the Canadian Government has established special conditions—Japan or China. Thus the restrictions on Indian immigration in Canada are stricter than those applied to alien immigration.

In Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, the resolution practically to exclude coloured labour is due to economic objection, since the white workman is determined not to permit the competition in the labour market of a race with a lower standard of living. The question was raised in an acute form at the Imperial Conference under a suggestion

"that the self-governing Overseas Dominions have now reached a stage of development when they should be entrusted with wider legislative powers in respect to British and foreign shipping."

This covered the claims of New Zealand to prevent ships manned in part by Lascars from competing with New Zealand shipping, which is compelled to adopt rates of pay, &c., approved by the New Zealand Government.

INTER-IMPERIAL COMMUNICATION.

The All Red Route

At the Conference of 1907, Sir Wilfrid Laurier suggested that a line of mail steamers equal to that running between the United Kingdom and the U.S.A., that is, with a speed of 24 knots, should be established between Great Britain and Canada, and that this should be linked up by the Canadian railways with a fast service of steamships running from Vancouver to New Zealand and Australia. The necessary financial support was to be contributed in suitable proportions by Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Various schemes were examined, but the cost of the Pacific service, at any rate, proved too great in view of the fact that the service to Australia would not be quicker than the existing route through the Suez Canal.

The question was raised again in 1911 by Sir Joseph Ward, and a general resolution in favour of an All Red Mail Service was agreed to. The chief difficulty in the way of the All Red Route across Canada for freight and emigration is the cost in time and money of the double transshipment at the Canadian ports. It was also urged that the opening of the Panama Canal in 1914 or 1915 will materially alter all questions of communication between the Pacific and the United Kingdom.

But the question of the All Red Route for purposes of telegraphy is of immediate interest, especially in Australia and New Zealand. Cable messages from the United Kingdom to Australia cost 3s. per word; and even under the reduced rate of 1s. 6d. for delayed messages, cables will still be beyond the pocket of the average man.

At the Imperial Conference, the Australian Commonwealth moved:—

"That this Conference strongly recommends the nationalisation of the Atlantic cable in order to cheapen and render more effective telegraphic communication between Great Britain, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, by these countries acquiring complete control of all the telegraphic and cable lines along the All Red route."

The New Zealand Government proposed the laying of a new State-owned cable between Great Britain and Canada.

Mr. Pearce stated that whenever business people had attempted in the past to improve the telegraph service, they had always met an impassable wall in the private cable companies of the Atlantic.

The All Red telegraph route from the United Kingdom to Australia and New Zealand via Canada involves the construction of a new cable across the Atlantic, and of a land-line across Canada to Bamfield, the Pacific Cable Board's station at Vancouver. The present line from Montreal to Bamfield is leased to the Canadian Pacific Railway. The Pacific Cable Board is already in national not private hands, being controlled jointly by the Governments of the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

Eventually, the Australian and New Zealand resolutions were abandoned in favour of one by Mr. Samuel, that in the event of no considerable reductions being made in cable rates in the near future, a subsidiary conference should be held to consider the laying of a State-owned cable between the United Kingdom and Canada.

A Reduction in Cable Rates.

The Postmaster General is taking certain steps to secure a reduction in ocean cable rates, which will materially assist the cheapening of communication essential to closer union between the constituent parts of the British Empire. The proposals are:—

(1) The establishment from January 1st, 1911, of cable rates at 50 per cent. less than the present rates for plain language telegrams liable to 24 hours' delay;

(2) The reduction of press rates;

(3) The insertion in all cable licences on renewal of a clause giving effective Government control, appeal on points of differences between the companies and the Postmaster General being to the Railway and Canal Commission;

(4) The development of wireless telegraphy, which, by effective competition, will eventually reduce cable rates.

There is no doubt that the question of an All Red Cable Route is prejudiced

by the consideration that developments in wireless telegraphy may put the cable out of date. Indeed, a proposal was laid before the Imperial Conference, for the construction of a chain of wireless stations between the United Kingdom and Australia, the proposed stations being Cyprus, Aden, Bombay, Straits Settlements, and Western Australia. South Africa was to be added later. The cost of the stations in England, Cyprus, and Aden were to be borne by the United Kingdom; in Bombay by the Government of India; in Singapore jointly by the parties concerned, and the Australian station by Australia. Difficulties on questions of detail arose with Australia, which already has a scheme of wireless, but the general proposition of the importance of the establishment of an Imperial wireless system was unanimously acknowledged.

SECTION IX.—LABOUR.

THE PROGRAMME OF THE LABOUR PARTY.

By W. C. ANDERSON, Chairman of the Independent Labour Party.

The last General Election was not fought on grounds best suited to the Labour Party. Limitation of the power of the House of Lords has engaged some generations of Liberals. A conflict with this as its main issue threw the light upon Liberal leaders, and on the other hand afforded no opportunity for the discussion of the social and industrial questions in which the Labour Party finds its reason for existence. So it was that in three-cornered contests Labour candidates were at a disadvantage. In the financial difficulties ensuing on the Osborne judgment the Party suffered a further disadvantage of a more general character. That, notwithstanding these handicaps, 42 Labour candidates out of a total list of 56 were successful at the polls, constituting a net gain to the Party of two seats, may therefore be regarded by its adherents as a satisfactory and even significant result. In this article the result is claimed to have finally established the Parliamentary Labour Party as a separate and potent force in British politics.

Henceforward working men and women as such are always to have direct representation in the great council of the nation. Men will sit in the House of Commons who, keeping in mind the general good, will make it their special mission to initiate legislation and alter administration in the interests of the common people, and to oppose with all their power whatever in their view threatens these interests or unduly advances those of others. This will serve as a general statement of the immediate purpose of the Party. As it is above all things a practical Party, what is not immediate it leaves, temporarily at any rate, aside. It has its dreams and its wider objects. Enough if for the moment it establishes equipoise between contending social forces; enough if for the present generation it lays down that minimum basis for the common life without which no social fabric, having beauty or permanence, can ever be built at all. But this it may be said is the aim of all parties: they all desire the creation of minimum conditions.

In a sense that is true, and that it is true is due very largely to the persistent preaching of Labour and Socialist speakers and writers. This preaching may not have created Socialists, or Labourists: it has unquestionably created a consciousness of discontent to which in a democratic community all parties must minister if they are to live. Nevertheless, between the Labour Party and its rivals there is fundamental difference.

To understand this clearly the growing interdependence of the Trade Union and the State must be realised. Let

trade unions organise as strongly as they will, the protection they would win for their members can only be guaranteed and completed with the aid of the State. The State, on the other hand, more and more preoccupied with questions of wages and conditions of work, must overlap and may mar the unions unless there is a careful and delicate co-ordination of the energies of both. In illustration, consider how in 1901 trade unionism, as respectable an industrial institution as the Co-operative Store or Penny Savings Bank, was shattered to its base by the fiat of the judges in the Taff Vale Railway case. Subsequently to that year we see the unions threatened with forfeiture of funds it had taken the period of a man's life to accumulate, endure meekly a succession of bitter aggressions and rebuffs. Year after year the wages of working men decline until hundreds of thousands of pounds are lost to them per week. The lesson is salutary. The threatened organisations coalesce and in 1906 at the cost of a tithe of the weekly loss in wages some 29 Labour members are returned to Parliament. The period of precarious life is ended forthwith. Unions repossess their old power, and within 12 months the aggregate of wages has begun to rise.

It may be said again that the Liberal Government might have passed the Trades Disputes' Act without any pressure from Labour in Parliament. As matter of fact what they did do was to formulate proposals unacceptable to the trades unions, and later on to withdraw them in favour of those advanced by the Labour Party. The real answer, however, is deeper. Taff Vale had revealed to the unions that their activity had a political side and that their officials were as much or more needed in Westminster as at the mouth of the pit or at the gate of the great works or the factory. Unemployment is the best test of this. Each year the support of out-of-work members depletes or empties many trade union coffers. When this happens collective bargaining is at an end and the hungry unemployed must make for himself the best terms he can. As a condition of effective existence therefore, the unions must see that unemployment is limited to its smallest possible dimensions, and that for those necessarily out of work the community must assist to make provision. But when they have got this far they realise that control of unemployment is only one of a thousand interests that they have in common which representation at Westminster can advance. The homes in which workers live, the state of the air they breathe, the accidents that cripple or leave them dead, the education of their children, these are

THE PROGRAMME OF THE LABOUR PARTY—(con.)

becoming the stuff of which politics are made and in all of them the workers, out of the mere fact that they work, have an interest far exceeding the interests of other classes. Their interest widens into even ampler fields. The wealth that is spilled by war is wealth that workers supply, and the bodies that, when battle is ended, lie silent on stricken fields are almost all the bodies of lowly men. Thus the community of interest that begins in a struggle to add a shilling or two to wages rises and spreads until a complete social policy has been achieved. It starts maybe in materialism, but its nature is modified as it grows. Ethical elements penetrate it. The underpaid of one trade give thought to the underpaid in other trades, to the underpaid and ill-treated everywhere. Workers of different nations intermix to learn how alike are their lives in sadness and oppression. A conception of brotherhood enters and abides.

At this point something must be said of the other element in the Labour Party, that represented by the Independent Labour Party and the Fabian Society. These organisations are Socialist. They are not necessarily working class, and they stand for the abolition of the capitalistic basis of society. But neither organisation is carried away by its theories. While it affirms that neither industrial nor social happiness is possible until the contending classes in society are harmonised in a higher unity it is quite content that the mass of working men should make this discovery from the facts of their own experience. The junction between Socialists on the one hand and trade unionists on the other is thus entirely proper and effective. The unions reach up inductively to the great generalisation of ownership of the means of life by the community; the Socialists in facts of industrial life find concrete support for the sweeping deduction with which they begin.

From the alliance of these elements a party emerges with all the qualities of political effectiveness, the toiler lending it passion and actuality, and the theorist abstract sanction, large purpose, and the rigidity required to prevent its spending itself in opportunism only.

What this party has so far achieved need not be recapitulated here. In estimating its work, however, its critic should remember that its forces are not even yet consolidated. Many of those who find its sinews of war cannot when the crisis comes forget their old faiths of Liberalism and Toryism. So miners in Lanark are held at the moment of voting by their old tradition and nullify at the ballot-box the work they have themselves set going in their trade union branches. This dissonance will pass. The younger men will come into the Labour ranks without having known any preliminary allegiance, and they

will stay there as naturally as they stay in the branches of their unions. Allowance must be made also for the frictions and disappointments inseparable from the inception of a new policy which by its nature can only work wonders in gradual fashion. The too keen expectancy and feverish impatience of its supporters was to begin with an embarrassment to the Labour Party whose best work very often has won only the comment that it fell short of Jerusalem. This mood will pass, too. In the future, the Party, having subdued the wilder elements among its supporters, will pursue its work with greater fixity of purpose and also with greater virility and dash. It will keep in closer contact with the mass of workers whose legitimate discontent will thus find with equal ease either an industrial or political expression. Such an understanding was foreshadowed in the championship of the railway and other recent strikers in the House of Commons by Mr. Ramsay MacDonald and Mr. Keir Hardie, and its consummation will be facilitated by the policy which in the future the Party is to pursue. Mainly that policy will have to do with employment and with wages. The honest workman must have work to do where it may beneficially be done. Failing work he must have such provision made for him as is appropriate to his case. These provisions are the heart of the much maligned **Right to Work Bill**. The Labour Party will take them and find them equally sweet under any other designation. They are even, as some seem to think, conceded in essence in the proposals for National Insurance. As corrective to that view it may be well to quote from the resolution passed at the last annual Conference of the Party at Leicester which demanded: "The establishment of a Ministry of Labour to which shall stand referred the establishment and control of Labour Exchanges, the provision of State Insurance and maintenance, of the regularisation of casual labour, and the establishment of a forty-eight-hour maximum working week. The Conference also calls for a well-considered programme of works of public utility to be carried out by the most effective labour available, paid for at not less than trade union rates and under trade union conditions." As to wages the Party advocates the adoption of a **national minimum**. What is the precise amount is open to argument. It may be 30/- or a little more or less. It is only essential that under the circumstances prevailing in given times and places the minimum should afford to the normal worker the means of satisfactory life. In this advocacy the Party will achieve complete accord with the industrial battalions on which it rests. The inner meaning of the recent upheaval was "minimum wage," and every section of the Labour movement will back the demand for a proper

minimum with the very utmost of its power.

The Party is for improved factory and workshop inspection, and for more liberal compensation, when, despite adequate inspection, accidents still occur. It is for drastic Housing Legislation, and advocates Nationalisation of Land and of Railways. It would raise the school-age, give improved educational facilities to children, and above all see that they get adequate food and medical attention. It would break up the Poor Law, and give more generous Old Age Pensions. It would establish Adult Suffrage, and make away with what is left of the House of Lords. It is (of course) for Home Rule. Its policy as to Foreign Affairs is more distinctive. One may claim without boasting that in the progress of the Labour and Socialist Parties in Great Britain and abroad is the only real hope of our generation in the realisation of a great world's peace. A movement against war is now general to the Labour Parties of Europe, and each day it gains in force. The Parliament of Man is not yet, but those who have taken part in an International Socialist Congress have seen it in shadow and embryo. To establish content and happiness and fraternity in our own land and then to share it all with the people of other countries, this in rough and insufficient statement is the task to which the Labour Party now lays its land.

W. C. ANDERSON.

Membership of Trade Unions

| Groups of Trades. | Trade Unions. | Membership |
|---|---------------|------------|
| Building | 71 .. | 157,798 |
| Mining and Navvying | 84 .. | 729,723 |
| Metal Engineering and Ship-building | 212 .. | 369,374 |
| Textile | 271 .. | 379,108 |
| Boot and Shoe | 12 .. | 34,457 |
| Other Clothing | 29 .. | 32,326 |
| Railway service | 7 .. | 116,214 |
| Tramway and other Land Transport | 17 .. | 42,691 |
| Seamen, dock, and wharf .. | 34 .. | 71,636 |
| Printing and allied trades .. | 38 .. | 73,880 |
| Woodworking & Furnishing | 91 .. | 38,842 |
| Shop assistants | 4 .. | 56,312 |
| Other trades | 192 .. | 107,409 |
| General labour | 15 .. | 119,065 |
| Employés of public author's | 77 .. | 97,757 |

Total..... 1,154 .. 2,426,592

TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP, 1901-10.

| End of year. | Unions. | Membership. | Percentage increase (+) or decrease (-) |
|--------------|---------|-------------|---|
| 1901 | 1265 | 1,971,322 | +0.6 |
| 1902 | 1232 | 1,957,741 | -0.7 |
| 1903 | 1219 | 1,935,523 | -1.1 |
| 1904 | 1888 | 1,600,251 | -1.9 |
| 1905 | 1181 | 1,925,608 | +1.3 |
| 1906 | 1200 | 2,118,585 | +10.1 |
| 1907 | 1173 | 2,412,265 | +13.9 |
| 1908 | 1165 | 2,375,769 | -1.4 |
| 1909 | 1153 | 2,347,190 | -1.4 |
| 1910 | 1154 | 2,426,592 | +3.4 |

HOW TRADE UNIONS SPEND THEIR FUNDS.

10 years Annual Average 1901-10.

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS
£554,000

DISPUTE BENEFITS
£213,000

SICK & ACCIDENT BENEFITS
£388,000.

SUPERANNUATION BENEFITS
£275,000.

FUNERAL BENEFITS
£99,000..

OTHER BENEFITS & GRANTS
£108,000.

WORKING EXPENSES
£443,000.

THE FINANCE OF THE TRADE UNIONS.

Though all registered trade unions make returns to the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies with reference to their income, expenditure, and so on, it has been the invariable custom of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade to publish only the accounts of 100 principal trade unions, selected for their size and importance in the trade groups to which they belong. A table summarising their financial accounts for a period of 10 years is given below.

Trade depression and industrial unrest combined during the last few years to check the steady accumulation of reserve funds.

The statistics we give, which show the average expenditure per member on the various benefits is of especial interest in view of the State insurance proposals. It will be seen that the impression that trade unions spend most of their money in disputes is very wide of the mark. The great work performed in insuring members against unemployment and sickness, particularly the former, is well illustrated by the figures and by the diagram on the preceding page. Friendly societies of all kinds enable provision to be made in times of health for the inevitable day of sickness, but to the trade unions belongs the credit

of having created efficient machinery for insurance against unemployment.

Long before the national common-sense had realised how harmful unemployment is to the individual and to the body politic, bitter experience had taught the leaders of Trade Unionism the importance of making preparation in the sunny days of prosperity to temper its ravages. Attention should also be drawn to the steady increase of the cost of the sickness and superannuation benefits—a phenomenon which appears in the accounts of practically all other similar organisations, whether State or voluntary, English or foreign, and which has to be borne in mind when counting the probable cost of national provision to meet these necessities.

Included with many other items in the column headed "Other Benefits and Grants," is the amount spent by trade unions for Parliamentary purposes. Its relative unimportance is clearly shown by an analysis of the accounts of 18 representative unions for 1909—a normal year without a general election. These unions contained roughly 348,000 members, and their total expenditure amounted to £1,337,160. Of this only £9,522, or 14s. 3d. per £100 spent was devoted to political purposes. This works out at rather less than 7½d. per member.

Trade Union Funds (100 Principal Unions).

| Year. | Membership at end of year. | Income. | | Expenditure. | | Funds at end of year. | |
|-------|----------------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| | | Total Amount. | Per Member. | Total Amount. | Per Member. | Total Amount. | Per Member. |
| | | £ | £ s. d. | £ | £ s. d. | £ | £ s. d. |
| 1900 | 1,206,130 | 1,944,316 | 1 12 3 | 1,440,074 | 1 3 10½ | 3,729,136 | 3 1 10 |
| 1901 | 1,215,198 | 2,042,285 | 1 13 7½ | 1,638,312 | 1 6 11½ | 4,133,109 | 3 8 0½ |
| 1902 | 1,212,296 | 2,085,291 | 1 14 4½ | 1,799,676 | 1 9 8½ | 4,418,724 | 3 12 10½ |
| 1903 | 1,200,965 | 2,099,435 | 1 14 11½ | 1,916,286 | 1 11 11 | 4,601,873 | 3 16 7½ |
| 1904 | 1,195,754 | 2,111,735 | 1 15 3½ | 2,043,667 | 1 14 2½ | 4,669,941 | 3 18 1½ |
| 1905 | 1,213,657 | 2,213,320 | 1 16 5½ | 2,064,959 | 1 14 0½ | 4,818,302 | 3 19 4½ |
| 1906 | 1,297,967 | 2,346,473 | 1 16 1½ | 1,960,099 | 1 10 2½ | 5,204,676 | 4 0 2½ |
| 1907 | 1,459,967 | 2,496,630 | 1 14 2½ | 2,056,430 | 1 8 2 | 5,644,876 | 3 17 4 |
| 1908 | 1,434,930 | 2,737,981 | 1 18 2 | 3,204,411 | 2 4 8 | 5,178,446 | 3 12 2 |
| 1909 | 1,422,299 | 2,560,430 | 1 16 0 | 2,687,416 | 1 17 9½ | 5,051,460 | 3 11 0½ |

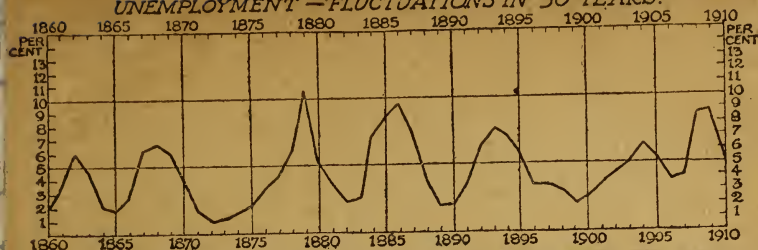
AVERAGE EXPENDITURE PER MEMBER ON CHIEF BENEFITS, ETC. (100 PRINCIPAL UNIONS).

| Year. | Unemployed Benefits. | Dispute Benefit. | Sick and Accident Benefit. | Superannuation | Funeral Benefit. | Other benefits and grants. | Working expenses. | Total amount |
|-------|----------------------|------------------|----------------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | £ s. d. |
| 1900 | 4 4 | 2 4 | 5 1½ | 3 0½ | 1 6½ | 1 6 | 5 11½ | 1 3 10½ |
| 1901 | 5 4½ | 3 5½ | 5 4½ | 3 3 | 1 6½ | 1 7½ | 6 4 | 1 6 11½ |
| 1902 | 7 1½ | 3 7½ | 5 7½ | 3 7 | 1 6½ | 1 6½ | 6 7½ | 1 9 8½ |
| 1903 | 8 6½ | 2 11½ | 6 1 | 3 11½ | 1 6½ | 1 7 | 7 3½ | 1 11 11 |
| 1904 | 10 11½ | 1 11½ | 6 5½ | 4 5½ | 1 7½ | 1 8½ | 7 1 | 1 14 2½ |
| 1905 | 8 7½ | 3 5½ | 6 7½ | 4 8½ | 1 7½ | 1 10½ | 7 0½ | 1 14 0½ |
| 1906 | 6 6½ | 2 4½ | 6 4½ | 4 8½ | 1 6½ | 1 7 | 7 1 | 1 10 2½ |
| 1907 | 6 4½ | 1 10½ | 5 11½ | 4 5½ | 1 5½ | 1 6½ | 6 7 | 1 8 2 |
| 1908 | 14 0½ | 8 5½ | 6 6 | 4 11½ | 1 5½ | 1 10½ | 7 4½ | 2 4 8 |
| 1909 | 13 3½ | 2 2½ | 6 2 | 5 3½ | 1 6 | 2 0 | 7 4½ | 1 17 9½ |

THE ACTUAL FIGURES FOR 1907, 1908 AND 1909, WERE AS FOLLOWS:—

| | | | | | | | | |
|------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|------------|
| 1907 | £463,733 | £136,122 | £433,277 | £327,688 | £104,301 | £110,757 | £480,552 | £2,056,430 |
| 1908 | 1,005,721 | 608,776 | 466,462 | 355,061 | 106,054 | 135,231 | 527,106 | 3,204,411 |
| 1909 | 943,659 | 154,991 | 438,853 | 376,122 | 106,560 | 142,429 | 524,802 | 2,687,416 |

UNEMPLOYMENT — FLUCTUATIONS IN 50 YEARS.



BOARD OF TRADE FIGURES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The only figures of value for the United Kingdom are those compiled from the returns of trade unions, which give out-of-work benefit to their members. The returns of the old Dismissal Committees touch a class of labour not included in the big trade unions, but the committees and other agencies dealing with under-employed, casual, and unskilled labour have changed so rapidly in recent years both in policy and in constitution that the figures reflect a change in the work of the respective agencies quite as much as a change in the state of employment. Thus, for extended comparison over a period of years, we are forced to utilise the trade union index. The available statistics—compiled yearly from the returns made by a limited number of trade unions to the Board of Trade—are by no means completely satisfactory.

Altogether they include only about 100,000 members out of a total of,

roughly, 2½ million unionists, and undue weight is thus given to a few industries which happen to be very fluctuating. The twelve million workers outside the trade unions do not directly enter the calculations. It will be one of the indirect advantages of unemployment insurance, and the more extended use of the labour exchanges that at last we shall have accurate and complete data on which to base industrial legislation. Still, though the trade union figures do not give information as to the absolute number of unemployed at any moment, yet they are of very considerable value as indicating comparative unemployment over a series of years. The diagram shows how unemployment has varied during the period from 1860 to 1910. The alternation of boom and depression is very clearly shown. 1909 was a very bad year, but in 1910 trade and employment immensely improved.

Foreign Trade Unions.

The following table gives the strength of the trade unions and Socialist Parliamentary representation in various countries according to the latest date available:—

| | Membership of Trade Unions. | No. of Socialists in Parlt. |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Austria | 470,565 | 82 |
| Australia | 166,929 | — |
| Belgium | 138,929 | 35 |
| Bosnia | 10,000 | — |
| Bulgaria | 18,753 | 6 |
| Croatia | 5,150 | — |
| Denmark | 121,295 | 24 |
| Finland | 19,928 | 86 |
| France | 977,350 | 73 |
| Germany | 2,688,144 | 54 |
| Greece | 6,000 | — |
| Holland | 143,850 | 7 |
| Hungary | 86,476 | — |
| Italy | 843,811 | 45 |
| Luxemburg | — | 10 |
| New Zealand | 54,519 | — |
| Norway | 44,223 | 11 |
| Portugal | — | 1 |
| Russia | — | 15 |
| Serbia | 4,462 | 1 |
| Spain | 40,984 | 1 |
| Sweden | 148,649 | 64 |
| Switzerland | 63,863 | 7 |
| Turkey | 50,000 | 6 |
| U.S.A. | 1,562,151 | 1 |

Women's Trade Unions.

A remarkable phenomenon of the last few years has been the growth of trades unionism amongst women. At the end of 1910 women trade unionists numbered 221,272, as compared with 209,573 a year previously, and 123,195 in 1901. Thus in 10 years the rate of increase was nearly 80 per cent. Most of the organised women are employed in the Lancashire cotton industry, but it is probable, as the result of the stimulus given to trades unionism by the Trades Boards Act and the unrest among women workers which the South London strikes disclosed, that the 1911 figures will show large increases in the south. It is an interesting fact that the percentage of organised women is now higher than was the percentage of organised men 40 years ago.

Railway Accidents.

On British and Irish railways in 1910, 1,111 passengers were injured in accidents to trains, and, in addition, 96 passengers were killed and 2,210 injured by the movement of trains. Of these, 20 lives were lost by falling out of carriages during the running of the train, and the same number by falling beneath the train when entering or alighting.

THE LABOUR MOVEMENT ABROAD.

By THEODORE ROTHSTEIN.

The two branches of the Labour movement, the political and economic, are much more closely connected on the Continent of Europe than in Great Britain, and this is especially true of Germany, where, to use the homely simile of Prof. Sombart, the Socialist Party and the Trade Unions form the two legs on which the Labour giant alternately moves. The past year was not marked by any great events, yet the number of paying members of the German Social Democratic Party has risen from 720,038 to 836,562, and the number of workpeople organised in Trade Unions has reached the high figure of 2,688,144, which is considerably larger than that of Trade Unionists in this country. More than 2,000,000 of these organised workers (including 161,500 females) belong to the so-called Free or Centralised—practically Social-Democratic—Trade Unions grouped in 53 amalgamations, and managed by a single Central Committee. Their aggregate income amounted in 1910 to £3,200,000, aggregate expenditure to £2,900,000, and the funds at the end of the year stood at £2,600,000. Of the expenditure more than one-third was directly connected with trade disputes, over £300,000 was expended on unemployed, and the remainder on other benefits, education and management. On its part the Social Democratic Party had during the year an income of over £67,000, and the expenditure amounted to £45,000.

The past year was marked by a somewhat suggestive movement in the rank and file of Labour, directed against the leaders—a movement not unlike that through which this country is passing. Arising out of the settlement of a threatened general lock-out in the building trades, great dissatisfaction was expressed in many places with what was regarded as the undue moderation of the trade union officials, and a sustained and animated discussion ensued on the subject of the relation between the "leaders and the masses." In the Party the somewhat belated action of the Executive in issuing a manifesto on the Morocco question, and in initiating a protest movement against Kiderlen-Waechter's diplomacy was deeply resented by the left Radical wing, and led to a lively exchange of views at the annual Party Congress held in September at Jena. However, there is very little likelihood of this parallel movement—or rather sentiment—leading to anything serious, and the German workers will enter the general electoral contest, which is due at the beginning of the new year, as one man.

The position of the Labour movement in the neighbouring Austria is unfor-

tunately not so satisfactory. The Nationalist tendencies among the Czech proletariat, which we noted in our last issue, have increased in breadth and depth, and led to the separation of the Czechs, not only from the common trade union, but also from the common political movement. The "Separatists" as they are called, have now formed "national" trade unions of their own, and the hitherto federated Social Democratic Party in Parliament has largely been broken up. To this circumstance is due the drop in the number of workers organised in trade unions, now amounting to slightly over 400,000, and the loss of five seats at the General Election to the Austrian Reichsrath in June, when the party captured 82 seats, as against 87 which it had held. Nevertheless, the aggregate number of votes cast in favour of the Party's candidates actually increased in 1911 to well over a million, and what is more important, the Christian Social, or Anti-Semitic, Party, its deadliest enemy, and for a long number of years the undisputed master of Austrian political life, has practically been crushed by it out of existence.

Agitation Against the Cost of Living.

All through the year the Austrian workers have been conducting an organised campaign against the rise in the cost of living, aggravated as it is there by the insatiable Protectionist appetites of the Agrarians, and the only effective reply the Government gave was an attack by the military on a vast crowd of demonstrators on Sunday, September 17th. The desperate state of the mind of the masses thereupon found vent in a sensational shot fired from the gallery of the Reichsrath at the Ministers. The Government naturally seized the occasion to divert public attention from the question at issue by attacking, in its turn, the Social Democrats as the party responsible for the terroristic act.

For the same reason the masses were exceedingly restless during the year in France. Great food riots took place in numerous town and country districts in the course of July, with no greater results than a few collisions with the police and the institution of a series of academic enquiries by the Government. The reason for this failure must be sought primarily in the unorganised state of the French working class, the greater portion of whom are infected by the semi-anarchistic "syndicalist" spirit, averse to patient work, and only bent on bringing about a general strike with a view to overthrowing the present order of society. There are in France about 1,000,000 workers belong-

ing to Trade Unions, but their membership is purely nominal, there being no fixed contributions, no proper rules, no war-chests, no benefit funds. The visit paid by the executive of the Confédération du Travail to Berlin in June in order to see the trade union organisation there was a great revelation to many of its members.

Labour and Militarism.

In connection with this visit the joint executives held a vast public meeting on the Morocco question, condemning the Imperialist diplomacy of the two Governments, with the result that M. Yvetot, the leader of the Confédération, received marching orders from the Berlin police authorities. On their return the executive of the Confédération organised in Paris a similar meeting, which was attended by delegates from Berlin, Madrid, and England (Mr. Tom Mann). In its turn the Unified Party, which now counts about 60,000 paying members and has 78 representatives in the Chamber, has combatted the warlike machinations of the financial cliques, both in Parliament and in the Press, and at the annual Congress at Saint Quentin in May reiterated its opposition to "Ministerialism" (policy of entente with the Government), and drew up a municipal programme.

The question of the attitude towards the Government and war also loomed large at the Congress of the Socialist Party of Italy, held at Modena in the middle of October. For reasons pointed out in our last issue, the Italian labour movement is in an unhealthy condition, the trade unions (now enjoying a membership of 843,000) being largely under the influence of the Syndicalists, and the party being torn by dissensions between the Moderate and the Radical wings. The war in Tripoli received a mixed reception among the industrial masses of the population. While the trade unions from the first opposed it, going even the length of carrying out with success a 24 hours' general strike by way of demonstration, the Moderate wing of the party condemned it chiefly from a purely utilitarian point of view as a non-paying undertaking, and a number of its leaders even declared themselves in favour of it. At Modena, nevertheless, the party unanimously adopted a resolution expressing its detestation of the war as an Imperialist undertaking, and sending its fraternal greetings to the Turkish proletariat and the Turkish Socialists.

Anti-Clericalism.

The same question, but in a different form, is arising in Belgium and Holland. In both countries the Socialists are joining hands with the Liberals for the overthrow of the clerical régime, and in the former country the success is only a matter of a few months. In July the Belgian Socialists

and Liberals held a joint demonstration of gigantic dimensions in Brussels in favour of universal suffrage, and the excellent results of the municipal elections in the autumn have shown that the Clerical Party is doomed. Should the Liberals have to form a Ministry they will no doubt invite the Socialists to participate in it, and the question whether they should do so or confine themselves to merely supporting the Government will become one of practical politics. In Holland, where the joint forces of the opposition also held an imposing universal suffrage demonstration at Amsterdam, the position is pretty nearly the same. In both countries, however, the trade union movement is rather weak, only the diamond workers in Amsterdam and Antwerp possessing a strong organisation, which has succeeded in winning an international eight hours' day. In Sweden the general strike of 1909, though apparently lost, and, indeed, instrumental in decreasing the membership of the trade unions to rather less than 150,000, has nevertheless thoroughly aroused the political consciousness of the masses, with the result that at the General Election in September the Socialist Party increased its strength in the Lower House from 35 to 64, and obtained in the aggregate over 170,000 votes, as against 75,000 in the last election. It is certain also to acquit itself with great honour in the impending elections to the Upper House. In Portugal the labour movement was born simultaneously with the Republic, and gave already some signal signs of vitality in the form of rather extensive and well-fought strikes and the return of a Socialist—the first in the history of the country—to the new Republican Parliament. In neighbouring Spain the Socialists continue to work with the Republicans, and have fought very bravely against the Government's venture in Morocco. In Bulgaria the Grand Sobranýe, entrusted with the task of revising the constitution, contained for the first time Socialists (six in number), and in Turkey, where the labour movement has already constituted itself and counts about 50,000 organised workers, the Socialists at Salonica and elsewhere, though supporting the Ottoman Government against Italian aggression, nevertheless protested against the projected expulsion of Italians and the boycott of Italian goods, and condemned the Young Turkish régime for suppressing the right of combination. In Finland the organised workers, though exposed to great persecutions at the hand of the Russian Government, are still in the van of the opposition against the usurpations of the Russian autocracy, and in Russia, after a prolonged state of disorganisation, both the trade union and the Socialist movements are showing unmistakable signs of revival.

T. ROTHSTEIN.

THE PREVENTION OF STRIKES.

It is encouraging to find that there is a steadily-growing appreciation of the value of conciliation in industrial disputes. The popularity of the Board of Trade for conciliation purposes is strikingly shown by the fact that in 1910 67 disputes were settled by its influence. In 41 of these no stoppage of work took place. These figures constitute a record. But most of the work of conciliation is performed by the permanent Conciliation Boards, of which, at the end of 1910, 282 were in existence. Two hundred and sixty-five dealt with particular trades, and 17 were district and general Boards. In addition, there are a number of arrangements, such as the famous Brooklands Agreement in the cotton trade, the Engineering Terms of Settlement, and the Shipyard Agreement, which, though not the same as Conciliation Boards, exercise functions of a similar character. The chief value of these lies in their ability to prevent strikes by providing an accessible and amicable method of settling differences without the cessation of work.

Realisation of the dangers attending prolonged industrial conflicts in important industries led the Government, in October, 1911, to appoint an **Industrial Council**, representative of employers and workmen, for the purpose of considering and of enquiring into matters referred to them affecting trade disputes, and especially of taking suitable action in regard to any dispute affecting the principal trades of the country, or likely to cause disagreements involving the ancillary trades, or which the parties are themselves unable to settle. In taking this course, the Government did not desire to interfere with, but rather to encourage and to foster such voluntary methods or agreements as are now in force, or are likely to be adopted for the prevention of stoppages of work or for the settlement of disputes. But it was thought desirable that the operations of the Board of Trade in the discharge of its duties under the Conciliation Act, 1896, should be supplemented and strengthened, and that effective means

should be available for referring such difficulties as may arise in a trade to investigation, conciliation, or arbitration, as the case may be. The Council will not have any compulsory powers.

Thus the scheme follows the lines of the highly-successful Conciliation Board for the cotton industry associated with the name of Sir C. W. Macara.

The list of members contains the names of the official heads of the employers' federations in the great industries, and the general secretaries of the great operative organisations.

The employers' representatives are: Mr. George Ainsworth (Steel Ingot Makers' Association); Sir Hugh Bell (Iron, Steel, and Allied Trades Federation); Mr. G. H. Claughton (L. & N.W. Railway Co.); Mr. W. A. Clowes (London Master Printers' Association); Mr. J. H. C. Crockett (Boot and Shoe Manufacturers); Mr. F. L. Davis (South Wales Coal Conciliation Board); Mr. T. L. Devitt (Shipping Federation); Sir T. Ratcliffe Ellis (Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Owners); Mr. F. W. Gibbins (Welsh Plate and Sheet Manufacturers); Sir Charles Macara (Master Cotton Spinners); Mr. Robert Thompson, M.P. (Ulster Flax Spinners); Mr. Alexander Siemens (Engineering Employers); Mr. J. W. White (National Building Trades Employers).

The workmen's representatives are: Rt. Hon. Thomas Burt, M.P. (Northumberland Miners'); Mr. T. Ashton (Miners' Federation); Mr. C. W. Bowerman, M.P. (Printing and Kindred Trades' Federation); Mr. F. Chandler, M.P. (Carpenters and Joiners); Mr. J. R. Clynes, M.P. (Gas Workers and General Labourers); Mr. H. Gosling (National Transport Workers); Mr. Arthur Henderson, M.P. (Ironfounders); Mr. John Hodge, M.P. (Steel Smelters); Mr. W. Mosses (Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades); Mr. W. Mullin (United Textile Factory Workers); Mr. E. L. Poulton (Boot and Shoe Operatives); Mr. Alexander Wilkie, M.P. (Shipconstructive and Shipwrights' Society); Mr. J. E. Williams (Railway Servants).

Sir George Askwith, the present head of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade, has been appointed chairman with the title of Chief Industrial Commissioner.

Conciliation and Arbitration Abroad.

The voluntary conciliation and arbitration boards which play so large a part in the settlement of industrial disputes in the United Kingdom are rarely found in other countries, but most countries have adopted more or less tentative legislation for dealing with industrial troubles.

In *France*, *Conseils de Prud' Hommes*, composed of employers and workpeople, have existed since 1806 for disputes affecting individual workpeople. Collective disputes may be referred to a conciliation committee or a board of arbitration appointed by the local *Juge de Paix* on the invitation of either or both parties, but disputing parties are subject to no compulsion.

The *German* Court of Arbitration and Industrial Courts, composed of a president

and an equal number of elected representatives of the employers and workpeople of a district, can, on the invitation of one side, summon both parties to appear. But unless both agree to accept mediation the Court may merely publish the terms on which it considers the parties should agree and call upon them to accept or reject them within a certain period, relying on public opinion to do the rest.

Denmark established a permanent Arbitration Court in 1910, whose business it is to enforce collective agreements. The breaker of an agreement—to refer disputes to arbitration, to which he or his organisation has been a party—may be summoned before the Court and fined.

The New Zealand and Canadian Schemes.

The New Zealand Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1908, is interesting as representing the results of experience in State intervention in disputes since 1894, when the first law on the subject was passed. For each of the eight districts into which the Dominion is divided a Conciliation Commissioner has been appointed, whose business it is in the event of a dispute to preside over a Council of Conciliation, composed of an equal number of members nominated by each party, which endeavours, without compulsory powers, to bring about a settlement.

If this fails the dispute is referred to the permanent Court of Arbitration, composed of a judge of the Supreme Court, an employer selected by the employers' associations, and a workman elected by the trade unions throughout the Dominion. An award by this Court, or an agreement arrived at through a Council of Conciliation or otherwise, and filed in this Court, is absolutely binding, not only on the particular parties to the dispute, but on the whole trade in the district concerned. A strike or lock-out is illegal only if the parties concerned are bound by an award or agreement, and the Court has power to fine a worker who strikes illegally up to £10, and an employer who illegally locks out his men up to £500. Heavy penalties are also imposed on persons who aid or abet illegal stoppages of work.

To industries affecting the supply of the necessities of life, *e.g.*, water, meat, coal, electricity, &c., or the working of trams, trains, or ferries, specially stringent provisions apply. In these cases, whether affected by an award or agreement or not, at least 14 days' notice must be given within one month of an intended strike or lock-out.

The Shipyard and Brooklands Agreements.

The lock-out of the boilermakers in September, 1910, due to the infraction of the existing agreement between the Shipbuilding Employers' Federation and the shipyard trade unions, led to the signature in March, 1911, of a new treaty applicable to every shipyard in the kingdom, with the exception of Belfast and a part of the south of England, a document as rational as it is wide-embracing. Both sides gave individual and collective assurances that they will carry out the existing agreement of 1909—which provided machinery for conciliation without stoppages of work—and undertake to punish any of their own members who offend. Questions as to whether breaches of the agreement have taken place are to be referred to committee of three representatives of each side, unconnected with the locality in which the trouble has arisen, with a referee appointed by the committee to give a final decision in

Canada's Industrial Disputes Act, passed in 1907, is of particular interest because apparently it has achieved efficient prevention of strikes without the exercise of compulsory powers on the part of the Government. It deals only with those industries which affect directly the general welfare and convenience of the community at large, *e.g.*, coal mining, transportation, communication, and the supply of light, water, or power. In these industries it provides that no employer or employee may attempt to make any alteration in the contract of employment without 30 days' notice. If during this period the other party objects and a dispute arises, at the request of either side the Minister for Labour appoints a commission of three persons. One is chosen by the Labour interests, the second by the employers, and the third, an impartial chairman, is selected by the other two. Forthwith the question in dispute is carefully investigated, conciliation is attempted, and finally if this fails the commission publishes recommendations of what it considers the right course to be pursued. These are not binding, but if they are fair and reasonable, as they usually have been, the whole weight of public opinion is opposed to the party which refuses to accept them. Until these recommendations have been published, no alteration in the relations of the two parties may take place, and a strike or lock-out is illegal, and visited with heavy penalties.

The efficacy of this scheme of applying the powerful aid of public opinion to the reasonable and just solution of labour troubles is shown by the fact that in the first two years of its working 53 of the 55 disputes which came within its scope were settled without cessation of work.

case of disagreement. This committee will also fix responsibility for breaches of the agreement. Each locality is to establish suitable arrangements for dealing with piecework rates, with a right of appeal in each case to a joint committee, of which the chairman, who has a casting vote, is to be selected alternately by each side from the other. This ingenious and pacific proposal marks a step forward in industrial conciliation.

An interesting addition to the Brooklands Agreement, whose efficacy in practically preventing strikes in the cotton trade has been proved by 18 years' experience, was made in September, 1911. Henceforth if a strike or lock-out does take place, in spite of the established conciliation machinery, the two sides agree to meet each other within 14 days of the commencement of the dispute, and at intervals of not less than a month afterwards for so long as the dispute continues.

Trades Disputes. Causes and Results.

During 1910, no less than 515,165 workpeople were directly or indirectly involved in the 531 disputes which involved a stoppage of work. Over 200,000 more workpeople were concerned than in the previous year—Itself a bad year. Indeed, 1910 showed the highest number of strikers since 1893. Yet it is easy to exaggerate the amount of dislocation caused by disputes. Though 1910 was so bad a year, the proportion of workpeople affected was only 5 per cent. of the total industrial population, and the loss of working days, which in the aggregate amounted to 9,894,831, averaged out at less than one day per head.

Analysing the causes of disputes during the year, it is found that of the 385,085 workpeople directly involved,

114,793, or nearly 30 per cent., were concerned with disputes which arose over the employment of particular classes or persons. This very high figure was chiefly due to a strike of 102,000 cotton spinners over the discharge of one individual. 91,927 workpeople, or 24 per cent. of the total, were concerned in disputes over questions of hours of labour. The great majority of these were Northumberland or Durham miners, with whom trouble arose over the adjustments necessary to put the Eight Hours Act into force. 76,474, or only 20 per cent., were directly concerned with questions of wages.

The results of disputes are shown by the following table:—

| Causes. | Number of workpeople directly involved. | | | | |
|---|---|-------------------------|--------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| | In favour of Workpeople. | In favour of Employers. | Compromised. | Indefinite or unsettled. | Total workpeople involved. |
| Wages:— | | | | | |
| For increase | 2,097 | 2,953 | 15,417 | 281 | 20,748 |
| Against decrease | 751 | 375 | 6,028 | — | 7,154 |
| Other wages' questions | 3,185 | 7,248 | 36,026 | 2,113 | 48,572 |
| Hours of labour | 532 | 823 | 90,572 | — | 91,927 |
| Employment of particular classes or persons | 4,145 | 4,840 | 105,808 | — | 114,793 |
| Working arrangements | 21,786 | 28,439 | 11,982 | — | 62,207 |
| Trade unionism | 30,044 | 2,029 | 620 | 84 | 32,777 |
| Other causes | 100 | 5,784 | 1,023 | — | 6,907 |
| Grand Total | 62,640 | 52,491 | 287,476 | 2,478 | 385,085 |

The accompanying diagrams illustrate the mean figures for the 10 years, 1901-1910:—

| TRADES | CAUSES OF DISPUTES | METHOD OF SETTLEMENT. | RESULTS |
|---|---|--|------------------------------------|
| BUILDING — 3,704 | | | IN FAVOUR OF WORK-PEOPLE 33,034 |
| MINING & QUARRYING 77,474. | WAGES 67,505. | DIRECT NEGOTIATION 86,589 | IN FAVOUR OF EMPLOYERS 38,162. |
| METAL, ENGINEERING, & SHIP-BUILDING 16,861 | HOURS OF LABOUR 21,330. | ARBITRATION · 7,448. | COMPROMISED 76,830 |
| TEXTILES 37,632. | EMPLOYMENT OF PARTICULAR CLASSES OR PERSONS 20,006 | CONCILIATION 41,249. | |
| CLOTHING — 3,767 | WORKING ARRANGEMENTS 17,169 | EMPLOYERS' TERMS WITHOUT NEGOTIATION * WORKERS REPLACED † | |
| TRANSPORT 4,701 | TRADE UNIONISM 19,704 | | |
| MISCELLANEOUS 4,215 | OTHERS — 2,640 | | |

* 9,457.

† 2,559.

** OTHERWISE — 1152

* INDEFINITE OR UNSETTLED — 320.

STRIKE IN THE TRANSPORT TRADES.

Serious as the economic loss due to labour troubles was in 1910, 1911 has shown far worse figures. The labour unrest, which had been sullenly smouldering throughout England, burst into flame in the summer of 1911, and even London, for the first time since the great Dock Strike of 1889, found herself an unwilling spectator of a vast industrial conflagration. During the first eight months of 1911, 623,582 workers were rendered idle by 469 disputes. The biggest fights took place in the transport trades. 110,000 seamen, firemen, dock labourers, and other transport workers proved the vitality of the newly-formed Transport Workers' Federation by striking in unison at various ports in June and July. The national programme of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union included demands for the constitution of a conciliation board, a minimum rate of wages, the abolition of a medical examination by Shipping Federation doctors, which was said to put the Englishman at a disadvantage as compared with the foreigner, and the improvement of hours of labour and forecastle accommodation. The sympathetic strikes of their allies paralysed trade in Man-

chester and the North, and an agreement was signed which embodied most of the points in dispute. The Shipping Federation calculated that the increase in wages to be paid under the agreement would amount to £522,307 per annum. A remarkable feature was the proof given by sympathetic strikes of ports on the other side of the North Sea of the growing internationalism of the labour movement.

Stimulated by the seamen's success, other workers seized the opportunity to enforce their demands. The London dockers almost spontaneously left their work and demanded increased remuneration. Coal porters, stevedores, lightermen, and carmen came out in sympathy, until 110,000 men were idle, and the work of the port was completely at a standstill. The various trades agreed that none should return to work until the demands of all had been satisfied. The terms ultimately settled gave the dockers a rise of 1d. per hour, the lightermen a minimum of 6s. for a ten hours day, the carmen a minimum wage for a 72 hours week of 27s. for one-horse drivers, and 31s. for two-horse drivers. The coal porters also obtained substantial concessions.

THE RAILWAY STRIKE.

Scarcely had the negotiators of the Board of Trade effected settlements in the docks when the whole of the railway system was disorganised by a general strike, which provided a most telling object lesson of the hardly recognised power of organised labour. The working of the 1907 Conciliation Agreement had for some time given acute dissatisfaction to railwaymen, and, following on a strike of 10,000 men at Liverpool, the combined executives of the four railway unions—the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, the General Railway Workers' Union, and the Signalmen and Pointsmen's Society—acting together, be it noted, for the fact is significant, for the first time—declared a general strike, in case the Companies declined to agree to "meet the representatives of the societies and to negotiate a basis of settlement of the matters in dispute affecting the various grades."

The reasons for this momentous decision are contained in some questions and answers that passed between Mr. Sydney Buxton and the Men's Executive. The questions were:—

- (1) What were the actual grounds on which the Executive had founded their action in issuing their manifesto?
- (2) What were the actual grievances in connection with the Conciliation Board Agreement of 1907?
- (3) Were those grievances sufficiently grave to justify the action which the Executive Committee had taken?
- (4) Could those grievances not be remedied in a less drastic way?

(5) Could those grievances be remedied in the way proposed by means of a general railway strike?

And the answers were as follows:—

(1) and (2) The failure of the railway companies to observe the spirit and letter of the Conciliation Board Agreement of 1907 and the utter impossibility of the men's representatives to redress the many grievances of which the men complain.

(3) Yes.

(4) Yes, by the suggestion offered by the Committee to the railway companies yesterday to meet the official representatives of the men.

(5) Yes, in our opinion that is the only course.

We have also considered the possibility of further questions being asked, and we have unanimously come to the conclusion that the only way that will now be an effective method of peace is that the companies consent to meet us.

Further efforts were made by the Government to prevent the great loss to all sections of the community, which a great railway strike involves, but without immediate success. Roughly, 140,000 railwaymen ceased work, and large bodies of troops were employed in guarding property, and in some places preventing and repressing disturbances.

Ultimately, on August 19th, an agreement was arrived at of which the most important terms were the replacement of all men on strike at the earliest practicable moment, the immediate appointment of a small Commission of Enquiry by the Government, and the settlement forthwith of various questions in dispute, either by Conciliation Boards or otherwise.

ACCIDENTS IN FACTORIES.

The report published in March, 1911, of the Departmental Committee appointed to enquire into accidents in factories throws doubt on the current impression that there has been any extraordinary increase in their number during the past 20 years. Far more accidents have been reported—the increase from 33,557 in 1896 to 117,500 in 1909 is very remarkable,—but this they ascribe more to defects in reporting in the past than to any real increase of accident risk in the present. The growth of trade during the period has brought about a steady enlargement in the area of accident risk, and in some industries the undoubted “speeding up” of machines and increase of pressure at which work is performed, has helped also to swell the total. But on the other hand, improved inspection and the greater care on the part of the employer resulting from his possible liabilities under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1906, have fully balanced these. Indeed, since 1907 the chance of accident has undoubtedly decreased. Nevertheless, the Committee conclude that the number of accidents is higher than it ought to be, and among other methods for

ensuring its diminution and improving the administration of the factory law they suggest that closer co-operation between inspectors and employers and workpeople might be attained by periodical conferences of representatives of the three classes for the discussion of industrial dangers and methods of prevention in particular trades or districts. Specific provisions in an amended Factory Act for the fencing of dangerous machinery, and the compulsory provision of guards by the makers when dangerous machines are supplied are also recommended.

Though no fault is found with the careful and painstaking work of the overworked staff of factory inspectors, some members of the Committee were in favour of reorganising the method of appointment, and Mr. Ramsay MacDonald and Mr. Gill in a characteristic rider, urge the desirability of making promotion to the higher ranks of the inspectorate more easily attainable by men qualified by practical experience, who have served in the lower posts.

MEMBERSHIP AND FUNDS OF THE LABOUR PARTY.

The Labour Party at the commencement of 1911 was composed of 137 Trade Unions, 125 Trades Councils and Local Labour Parties, 2 Socialist Societies, a contingent of co-operators and the Women's Labour League, with a total membership of 1,342,610. These figures compare unfavourably with the 172 Trade Unions and the 155 Trades Councils and Local Labour Parties, and the total membership of 1,486,308 of the previous year, but the decrease must be ascribed solely to the Osborne Judgment, which caused many organisations against which injunctions had been obtained, to withdraw from membership.

Alone amongst political parties, the Labour Party publishes an account of its income and expenditure. To the General Fund affiliated Trade Unions and Socialist Societies contribute 15s. per 1,000 members per year, and Trades Councils and Local Labour Parties pay 15s. per year when their membership is under 5,000, and 20s. when it exceeds 5,000. The Parliamentary Fund, from which has been

paid the £200 per year which Labour members receive from the Party, and one-fourth of the official election expenses of Labour candidates, is financed by a levy of 2d. per member per year from Trade Unions and Socialist Societies.

In 1910, the income of the General Fund from subscriptions was £1,096, and of the Parliamentary Fund £10,023. The maintenance of members cost £8,730, and the party's share of returning officers' fees for the two General Elections and two by-elections amounted to £7,290. The unusual burden of two General Elections reduced the balance in hand on account of the various funds during 1910 from £15,292 to £10,141.

In the December election, 42 out of 56 Labour candidates were returned, a gain to the party of two seats. The total number of votes polled for Labour candidates was 370,802, which was 134,888 less than in January, 1910. This decrease, however, is completely accounted for by the fact that in January, 78 candidates were run, as compared with 56 in December.

TRADE UNIONS (No. 2) BILL.

It is now stated that the Trade Unions (No. 2) Bill, introduced by Mr. Churchill on May 24th, will be delayed until next session. Its urgency has been removed by the establishment of payment of members of Parliament as part of the British parliamentary system.

(1.) A trade union may apply a portion of its funds to political purposes under rules to be approved by the Registrar of Friendly Societies.

(2.) These rules must provide:—

(a) That no money shall be devoted to

political purposes unless a ballot be taken and a majority of the members voting approve.

(b) That the political fund of the union shall be kept separate from the ordinary funds, and that any member who gives written notice of his unwillingness to contribute shall be exempt from any obligation to pay into it.

(c) That contribution to the political fund shall not be made a condition of membership, and that a member who claims exemption shall not be put to any disadvantage or excluded from any benefits as compared with other members.

WORKERS' WAGES.**Engineering, Shipbuilding, and Metal Trades.**

Further results of an enquiry by the Board of Trade into the Earnings and Hours of Labour of Workpeople in the United Kingdom have been published during the year. They include two trades, engineering and shipbuilding, to which the National Insurance Bill proposes to apply compulsory insurance.

The table below only refers to men working full time.

If all men employed be included the average is reduced to 32s. 3d. per week. In many of these trades, too, women are employed, e.g., in the manufacture of needles, chains, nails, and jewellery. For the whole group of trades, women's wages averaged 12s. 8d. They ranged from 15s. 11d. in the bedsteads trade to 9s. 6d. for a full week in the chain trade. And with regard to the latter it should be added that out-

workers and the smaller factories, in which much lower rates were paid, were excluded.

Comparison with the average earnings of men in some of the other groups of trades dealt with in the enquiry of 1907 shows that men in the metal trade earn on the whole distinctly more than men employed in the other groups of trades.

When contrasted with the average earnings disclosed by a similar enquiry in 1886 into some branches of these trades a remarkable rate of increase is shown.

The Board of Trade enquiry included over one-half of the 1½ million workers employed, and may be considered fully representative. The following table shows the average earnings of men of and above 20 years of age returned as working full time during the last week of September, 1906, and the proportions of men whose wages fell within various limits:—

EARNINGS AND HOURS OF LABOUR.

| Industry | Percentage of Men whose earnings were : | | | | | Average Earnings | Average hours of full week. |
|---|---|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------------|
| | Under 20s. | 20s. and under 30s. | 30s. and under 40s. | 40s. and under 60s. | 60s. and above. | | |
| | | | | | | s. d. | hours. |
| Pig iron | 6·9 | 32·9 | 32·3 | 24·5 | 3·4 | 34 4 | 55·2 |
| Iron and steel | 6·2 | 34·0 | 29·0 | 18·5 | 12·3 | 39 1 | 54·4 |
| Tinplate | 4·8 | 20·8 | 18·7 | 42·7 | 13·0 | 42 0 | 47·8 |
| Engineering and boilermaking | 9·1 | 32·9 | 38·4 | 17·5 | 2·1 | 32 5 | 53·1 |
| Ship, &c., building and repairing | 5·1 | 27·4 | 43·9 | 18·1 | 5·5 | 35 11 | 52·9 |
| Railway carriage and wagon | 9·2 | 42·3 | 32·0 | 14·2 | 1·4 | 30 9 | 53·6 |
| Light iron castings, &c. | 7·9 | 42·6 | 30·6 | 16·7 | 2·2 | 31 4 | 53·8 |
| Electrical, &c., apparatus | 3·1 | 35·2 | 33·9 | 25·0 | 2·8 | 34 7 | 52·4 |
| Wire drawing and working | 7·1 | 30·6 | 26·9 | 31·2 | 4·2 | 35 7 | 54·8 |
| Brass and allied metal | 4·1 | 41·1 | 38·1 | 14·3 | 2·4 | 31 9 | 52·7 |
| Gold, silver, electro-plate | 3·2 | 26·6 | 35·9 | 27·8 | 6·5 | 36 6 | 53·2 |
| Jewellery | 3·1 | 20·4 | 37·7 | 31·2 | 7·6 | 38 0 | 51·7 |
| Edge tools, spades, &c. | 7·5 | 40·3 | 34·5 | 16·1 | 1·6 | 31 2 | 52·7 |
| Smelting, rolling, &c., of metals other than iron | 7·3 | 43·3 | 29·4 | 18·2 | 1·8 | 31 5 | 57·7 |
| Cycle making and repairing | 4·2 | 36·9 | 32·3 | 22·0 | 4·6 | 34 4 | 53·4 |
| Tubes | 18·2 | 49·1 | 19·9 | 10·3 | 2·5 | 28 3 | 55·0 |
| Nails, screws, &c. | 9·8 | 41·7 | 30·4 | 15·0 | 3·1 | 31 0 | 53·0 |
| Bedsteads | 2·2 | 27·0 | 40·7 | 25·1 | 5·0 | 36 3 | 52·6 |
| Farmery and general smiths | 6·1 | 52·4 | 36·6 | 4·8 | 0·1 | 27 9 | 55·0 |
| Scientific instruments | 1·2 | 17·0 | 47·5 | 31·2 | 3·1 | 36 10 | 52·6 |
| Needles, fish hooks, &c. | 5·2 | 38·9 | 37·3 | 17·8 | 0·8 | 31 9 | 50·0 |
| Chain anchors, &c. | 7·4 | 42·0 | 21·3 | 18·9 | 10·4 | 35 4 | 46·8 |
| Locks, latches, keys, &c. | 6·9 | 55·6 | 31·1 | 5·8 | 0·6 | 29 0 | 55·0 |
| Watches and clocks | 3·8 | 31·5 | 43·8 | 18·1 | 2·8 | 32 7 | 53·4 |
| Type founding | 4·6 | 33·1 | 42·0 | 18·9 | 1·4 | 33 3 | 52·3 |
| Other metals | 7·5 | 35·3 | 35·9 | 19·1 | 2·2 | 32 5 | 63·0 |
| Total | 7·6 | 33·4 | 36·2 | 18·7 | 4·1 | 33 11 | 53·2 |

GROUPS OF TRADES COMPARED.

| Trades. | Average Earnings. | Proportion of men earning | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| | | Under 20s. | 20s. & 40s. | 40s. & 60s. | 60s. & above |
| | s. d. | | | | |
| Metal engineering, &c. trades | 33 11 | 7·6 | 69·6 | 18·7 | 4·1 |
| Building, &c., trades | 32 0 | 5·7 | 77·9 | 15·2 | 1·2 |
| Textile trades | 28 1 | 18·4 | 67·6 | 12·6 | 1·4 |
| Clothing trades | 30 2 | 7·2 | 79·9 | 10·6 | 2·3 |
| Public utility services | 28 1 | 12·0 | 78·7 | 8·7 | 0·6 |

1886 AND 1906 COMPARED.

| Industry. | Av. earnings (full time). | | Per. cent inc. |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------|----------------|
| | 1886. | 1906. | |
| | s. d. | s. d. | |
| Pig iron | 26 6 | 34 7 | 30·5 |
| Tinplate | 33 5 | 42 0 | 25·7 |
| Engineering and boiler-making | 25 9 | 32 5 | 25·0 |
| Shipbuilding, etc. | 29 3 | 35 11 | 22·3 |
| Railway carriage building | 25 2 | 30 9 | 22·2 |
| All the above | 26 7 | 33 5 | 25·7 |

The Earnings of Agricultural Labourers.

The volume which deals with agriculture in 1907 is based on the returns made by over 15,000 farmers, resident in all parts of the United Kingdom, who together employed over 78,000 male adult labourers in regular work. It is important in agriculture to distinguish between cash wages and real earnings. Most agricultural labourers receive, either at special periods or throughout the year, extra cash pay-

ments (in connection with harvest, &c.) or payments in kind, such as board and lodging for unmarried men, free cottages, or cottages at reduced rents, fuel, or milk. The nature and amount of these allowances varies from county to county, but in computing earnings full credit has in each case been given to them. For each country the average weekly cash wages and earnings are shown by the following table:—

| | England. | | Scotland. | | Wales. | | Ireland. | |
|--------------------------|------------|----------|------------|----------|------------|----------|------------|----------|
| | Cash wages | Earnings | Cash wages | Earnings | Cash wages | Earnings | Cash wages | Earnings |
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| Ordinary labourers | 14 6 | 17 6 | 15 1 | 18 11 | — | — | — | — |
| Horsemen | 15 3 | 18 9 | 14 4 | 19 8 | — | — | — | — |
| Cattlemen | 16 1 | 19 1 | 13 4 | 19 4 | — | — | — | — |
| Shepherds | 15 11 | 19 7 | 13 9 | 20 5 | — | — | — | — |
| All classes | 15 2 | 18 4 | 14 2 | 19 7 | 13 9 | 18 0 | 9 3 | 11 3 |

It has been found impossible to give details for Wales and Ireland, as farms are usually too small to allow of distinctive duties being assigned to particular men.

As is to be expected, wages in each country are highest in those districts which are adjacent to industrial or mining centres, and lowest where no industry of importance competes with agriculture for a supply of labour.

Agricultural labourers as a rule receive very little in the way of holidays, without loss of pay. Christmas Day and Good Friday are the only days generally recognised as holidays in England and Wales. It is fair to point out, though, that in most cases deductions are not made when men are absent through sickness.

Thus for England the counties in which

the highest and lowest average rates of wages and earnings prevail are:—

HIGHEST RATES.

| County. | Cash wages. | Earnings. |
|---------------------|-------------|-----------|
| | s. d. | s. d. |
| Durham | 18 6 | 22 0 |
| Northumberland | 18 3 | 21 6 |
| Lancashire | 18 4 | 21 0 |
| Middlesex | 18 10 | 20 10 |

LOWEST RATES.

| County. | Cash wages. | Earnings. |
|---------------|-------------|-----------|
| | s. d. | s. d. |
| Oxford | 13 9 | 16 4 |
| Dorset | 12 9 | 16 6 |
| Norfolk | 13 6 | 16 6 |
| Suffolk | 13 5 | 16 7 |

CO-OPERATION.

The material progress of the Co-operative movement is as remarkable as it is continuous. The following figures for 1909 and 1910 are taken from

the Report of the Central Board to the Co-operative Congress—the annual parliament of co-operators—held at Bradford in June, 1911.

| | | Societies. | Members. | Shares. £ | Sales. £ | Profits. £ |
|-----------------|------|------------|----------------------|--------------|-------------|---------------|
| Wholesale | 1910 | 2 | 1,434 (societies) | 2,167,476 | 34,305,991 | 843,583 |
| | 1909 | 2 | 1,439 | 2,068,243 | 33,133,074 | 922,756 |
| Retail " | 1910 | 1,428 | 2,542,532 | 31,614,559 | 71,861,383 | 10,938,331 |
| " | 1909 | 1,430 | 2,469,039 | 30,804,246 | 70,375,078 | 10,847,945 |

In considering these figures it is important to remember that most of the trade of the wholesale societies is done with the retail societies which compose them. Since 1895 the sales of the wholesale societies have risen from under 14 to over 34 millions per annum, and of the retail societies from 34 to 71 millions. The membership of the retail societies has just doubled itself in the 15 years, and is now over 9 per cent. of the total population above 20 years of age. Of the profits the sum of £88,761 was applied to educational purposes in 1909. Dividend for 1909 worked out at

an average of 2s. 5½d. in the £ in the retail societies, and 4d. in the English, 8d. in the Scottish wholesale societies.

Taking the various kinds of societies separately, the returns of productive societies for 1909 show a total of 1,120 societies partly or wholly engaged in production with 49,753 employes, and a total output of £24,332,927. Food and tobacco accounted for over 74 per cent. The following figures will show the great development in Co-operative production:

| | | | |
|---------|------------|---------|------------|
| 1899 .. | £9,888,533 | 1908 .. | 22,778,285 |
| 1907 .. | 19,417,753 | 1909 .. | 24,332,927 |

THE WAGES OF RAILWAYMEN.

The average weekly earnings of men employed in the coaching, goods, locomotive, and engineers' departments of the 15 principal railway companies during 1900-1910 are shown by the following table:—

| | s. | d. | | s. | d. |
|------------|----|-----|------------|----|----|
| 1900 | 25 | 0½ | 1906 | 25 | 5½ |
| 1901 | 25 | 0¼ | 1907 | 25 | 10 |
| 1902 | 24 | 11¼ | 1908 | 25 | 0 |
| 1903 | 24 | 10½ | 1909 | 25 | 4½ |
| 1904 | 25 | 0½ | 1910 | 25 | 9 |
| 1905 | 25 | 3½ | | | |

Official detailed figures of the earnings of the different grades of railwaymen are at present not available for any year later than 1886. But in 1907 the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants conducted an elaborate census of the wages of railway workers, which embraced about 260,000 employés. It may thus be taken as fully representative.

The average wages of the various grades were found to be as follows:—

| | s. | d. | | s. | d. |
|----------------------|----|----|-------------------------|----|----|
| Drivers | 38 | 10 | Signalmen | 23 | 1 |
| Goods Foremen | 27 | 7 | Ticket collectors | 21 | 6 |
| Goods Guards | 26 | 10 | Carmen | 21 | 6 |
| Passenger G'ds | 26 | 1 | Loaders | 21 | 5 |
| Signal Fitters | 24 | 8 | Goods Porters | 19 | 6 |
| Shunters | 24 | 2 | Platelayers | 19 | 4 |
| Examiners | 24 | 2 | Carriage Clean's | 18 | 5 |
| Gangers | 24 | 1 | Passenger port'rs | 17 | 5 |
| Firemen | 24 | 0 | Engine cleaners | 14 | 8 |
| Checkers | 23 | 5 | | | |

The suggestion has been made that these figures were rendered low by the inclusion of an undue proportion of boys. This, however, was not the case, for of the 259,284 returns only 15,921 or 6 per cent. related to boys.

The general position is shown thus:—

| | England and Wales. | | United Kingdom. | |
|------------------|--------------------|------|-----------------|------|
| Wages. | No. | P.c. | No. | P.c. |
| 20s. and under | 113,800 | 36·7 | 100,930 | 38·8 |
| 21s. to 30s. . . | 113,780 | 51·3 | 128,810 | 49·8 |
| 31s. and over | 26,610 | 12·0 | 29,540 | 11·4 |
| | 221,690 | 100 | 259,280 | 100 |

The figures show that for the United Kingdom half of the railway employés come between the 20s. and 30s. limit, while only 11·4 per cent. receive more than 31s. Beyond this, the figures confirm the assertion, frequently denied that there are over 100,000 employés on the railways of the United Kingdom whose standard wage does not exceed £1 per week.

Comparison with the table above will show that in 1907 the general average wages were higher than usual.

On October 27th it was announced that substantial increases in wages were being made by the G.W.R. to various classes of railwaymen. Foremen passenger shunters' wages in future to be 36s.-40s. per week, other classes 29s.-30s. and 22s.-25s.; guards (2nd class men), max., 38s.; goods guards, max., 32s.; signalmen (1st class), 29s., county and branch lines. 26s., &c. The other great railway lines were following suit.

The total number of men employed in the railway service throughout the United Kingdom in various years is shown below.

| | | | |
|------------|---------|------------|---------|
| 1895 | 465,112 | 1904 | 581,664 |
| 1898 | 534,141 | 1907 | 621,341 |
| 1901 | 575,034 | 1910 | 608,750 |

The wages' bills, as given in the "Economist" of August 12th, for the companies show a total increase of £269,100 for 1911 over 1910:—

| Company. | Wages. | |
|---------------------------|------------|------------|
| | 1910. | 1911. |
| | £ | £ |
| London & North-Western | 1,997,700 | 2,063,600 |
| Midland | 2,053,400 | 2,064,100 |
| Lancashire & Yorkshire .. | 870,700 | 892,200 |
| Great Northern | 786,400 | 804,800 |
| Great Eastern | 786,600 | 810,500 |
| Great Central | 747,900 | 782,800 |
| Great Western | 1,765,600 | 1,798,700 |
| London & South-Western | 672,900 | 681,200 |
| North-Eastern | 1,392,800 | 1,427,900 |
| South-Eastern & Chatham | 570,400 | 580,400 |
| London, Brighton, &c. . . | 387,800 | 392,300 |
| North Staffordshire | 122,900 | 127,100 |
| Metropolitan | 86,400 | 85,900 |
| North London | 60,400 | 59,500 |
| Total | 12,301,900 | 12,571,000 |
| | + £269,100 | |

A report in the "New York World" shows that wages, even when higher cost of living is taken into account, are higher on American than on English railways. American wages, moreover, show a substantial rise in the ten years 1899-1909, the last period for which official statistics are available. The following was the average daily wage in 1909, excluding payment for overtime, of the American railway man:—

| | Daily Increase Wages, per cent. | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| | s. | d. over 1899. |
| General Office Clerks | 10 | 7 |
| Station Agents | 8 | 8 |
| Other Station Men | 7 | 8½ |
| Enginemen | 18 | 3½ |
| Firemen | 11 | 2 |
| Conductors | 15 | 0 |
| Other Train Men | 10 | 9½ |
| Machinists | 11 | 7½ |
| Carpenters | 40 | 4 |
| Other Shopmen | 8 | 10 |
| Section Foremen | 8 | 6 |
| Other Trackmen | 6 | 2 |
| Switch Tenders, &c. | 6 | 9 |
| Telegraphists | 9 | 3½ |
| Employés (Floating equipm't) | 9 | 5½ |
| Other employés and Customers | 7 | 8 |

In comparing these rates with the earnings of British railwaymen allowance should be made for the much higher cost of living and the remarkable rise in prices in the period 1899-1909 in America.

THE RAILWAY COMMISSION REPORT.

The Railway Commission issued its report on October 21st. On the vital question of "recognition" the report advises that—

"The members of each Board shall be at liberty to select a secretary from any source they may think proper. We mention this in connection with the subject of recognition, as it may be regarded as pertaining to it."

Thus trade union officials, though not employes of the company, may be present to put the men's case.

The precise wording of the important clauses of the draft report bearing on this point are:—

Secretaries.—Each side of a Conciliation Board shall have a secretary, who may take part in discussions and act as an advocate if desired, but shall have no vote unless he is a member of the Board.

The company's secretary of each Conciliation Board shall be appointed by the company from any source it pleases.

The employes' secretary shall be chosen by a majority of the employes' side of the Conciliation Board, who may select him from any source they please, and shall determine the length and conditions of his office, subject to the provisions of this scheme.

In dealing with the men's suggestion that Conciliation Board awards have been evaded by the companies, the Commissioners state:—

"The examples of regrading the establishment of trip rates and the other methods of management, by which the men were alleged to have been deprived of the beneficial effects of awards, are not numerous. Some of the companies did take this action, but assuming that in doing so they acted in good faith and were within their rights, the carrying out of these economies at the very time the awards came into operation was,

in our opinion, unfortunate and calculated to excite feelings of disappointment and irritation."

The failure of the Conciliation Boards set up in 1907 is stated to be due to the fact that from the first the parties regarded conciliation as a matter of form, merely preparatory to arbitration, which was to settle the real points at issue. This, however, is not to be attributed to the scheme itself, but is due to the fact that circumstances at the time rendered very difficult the application of the earlier stages of the scheme, which depend on conciliation.

Summarising the men's evidence, the chief points of complaint were:—

(1) The delay of two months and a half before any matter can be brought before a Board.

(2) The Sectional Boards are at present merely formal mediums through which business is carried to the Central Boards—a further cause of much delay.

(3) The scheme is said to be too limited in its scope, and it is contended that it should provide for the consideration of all relations between railwaymen and the companies, except those in which discipline and management are concerned.

(4) The disadvantage to which the men were placed by having to elect as secretary a fellow-employe—dependent on the company for position and future prospects.

(5) The delay, expense, and difficulty of interpretation of arbitration awards, and the long periods fixed for their continuance. Any award, it was urged, should be terminable after one year by three months' notice on either side.

The evidence of the companies traversed generally the statements made by the men.

The Commissioners' Decision.

First of all, Central Boards are to be abolished in favour of Sectional Boards.

On the question of delay, the Commission considers that "the approach to the company" should be "not only maintained, but facilitated," and that "every effort be made by both the companies and the men to adjust matters of difference before the next step.

"If, however, any matter dealing with hours, wages, or conditions of service, except questions of or bearing upon discipline and management," be not settled by direct deputation, then it "shall be placed upon the agenda paper for reference to a Conciliation Board to be assembled under nominal circumstances at intervals of six months."

"A special meeting" may be demanded at 14 days' notice, and "if a difference should arise as to the necessity for such special meeting the question should be referred to the chairman within the 14 days." The chairman (not the company be it noted) shall fix the date of the special meeting if he grants it.

The chairman, entrusted with safeguarding the men against delay, is not to be a director nor a servant of any railway company, but he is to be selected from a panel to be constituted by the Board of Trade.

Agreements arrived at by a Board are to continue in force for 12 months, and afterwards until amended. Decisions by a chairman stand for two years.

All existing agreements and awards are to remain in force until July 1st, 1912, and thereafter continue until superseded.

Agreements arrived at by the Boards are to be final, and the option of rejection by the companies or the men within a certain period granted by the scheme of 1907 is to be abolished.

The new scheme is to remain in force until November 6th, 1914, and is to be subject to determination or revision as regards any given company by 12 months' notice by the company or by a majority of the aggregate representatives of employes on all the Conciliation Boards for the companies' system.

A SUCCESSFUL ATTACK ON SWEATING.

The working of the Trade Boards Act 1909, is a matter of deep importance to social reformers, for it represented the first attempt on the part of the State, under the modern organisation of industry, to interfere directly between masters and men in the regulation of wages. The cry of the sweated worker overcame at last the reluctance of Parliament to intervene in the hitherto sacred region of wages, and, as an experiment, authority was given to set up Trade Boards to fix minimum rates of wages in four selected industries, viz:—

- (1) Ready-made and wholesale bespoke tailoring;
- (2) Paper box making;
- (3) The finishing processes of machine-made lace;
- (4) Certain kinds of chainmaking.

Chainmaking was first tackled by the Board of Trade, and the successful attempt made to increase the remuneration of the women chainmakers will be found recorded in the "Daily News" Year Book of 1911. The 2½d. per hour time rate, and the piece rate subsequently based upon it represent an average increase of at least 60 per cent. 2½d. per hour is by no means a princely remuneration, but 12s. a week means much to a woman to whom 8s. a week has previously been an apparently unattainable ideal.

In the sweated portion of the men's trades, rates ranging from 5d. to 7d. an hour have been fixed. In the cases of both men and women difficulty was experienced during the optional period of six months allowed by the Act. But the firmness of the newly-formed union—a remarkable by-product of the establishment of the Trade Board—the material and moral support of the outside public, and, what is an interesting and novel feature of industrial conflicts, the help of the more public-spirited employers, who were quite willing to pay the increased rate, sufficed to overcome this.

In the Nottingham lace trade it is indisputable that in the past a large number of the women employed have been unable to earn a bare 1d. per hour. Attempts have been made in the past by the best firms to secure the payment of reasonable rates to their workers. Some years ago a list of piece rates to be paid to the middlewomen was drawn up, and a large number of firms voluntarily agreed to observe it. But it broke down, as all voluntary schemes of the sort have broken down, because of the competition of less public-spirited employers. It has, however, formed the basis of the piece rate fixed by the Trade Board for payment, not to the middlewomen, but to the actual workers—a considerable advance. The time rate of 3d. an hour had already been fixed.

In number of persons employed, in the multitudinous variety of their products and in their geographical

decentralisation, the box-making and tailoring trades present far greater difficulties. Hence in these the work is not so far advanced.

The paper-box trade affords employment for 22,000 workers, of whom about 17,000 are women. On the difficult question whether the same rate should be fixed for the whole country or whether differentiation between areas should be allowed, it was decided that the balance of advantage rested with a universal rate. A similar decision was later on reached by the tailoring board. Legal doubts as to the validity of the graduated rates at first fixed will delay the minimum rate of 3d. per hour, to which the Trade Board has agreed, becoming obligatory until about June, 1912—though it will have a limited operation from December onwards. Piece rates have yet to be settled.

The improvement wrought by this rate varies in different branches of the trade. The match-box maker, for example, used to receive about 2d. per gross, which rarely yielded more than about 1½d. per hour and often produced considerably less. On an average it has been calculated that the increase right through the trade will work out at about 3s. a week.

The Tailoring Board, established to deal at first only with men's garments, after long hesitation decided on a general minimum rate of 3½d. for women and 6d. for men per hour in October, 1911. Nine months, however, must elapse, according to the Act, before this rate becomes universally obligatory.

In each trade the question of learners and juvenile labour has been dealt with. There was a danger that the payment of the minimum rates might be avoided by a large increase of so-called "learners." This possible evasion has been forestalled in the box trade, for example, by the requirement:—

- (1) That all learners must hold a certificate from the Trade Board; (2) that to every learner wages shall be paid according to a scale which, starting at 4s. a week, reaches the ordinary adult rate in three years by quarterly increments; (3) that no worker over 18 years old shall be considered a learner; (4) that the proportion of learners to ordinary workers must not pass a certain limit; and (5) that each learner must have a reasonable prospect of receiving due instruction.

Thus, to sum up, it may be fairly claimed that so far as two of the four selected sweated trades are concerned, the Trade Boards have proved their utility by effecting a remarkable increase of wages. It is a tribute to the success of the Trade Boards that already applications to be included within the provisions of the Act are pouring in to the Board of Trade, and that Germany, France, Austria, and various other countries are considering similar legislation. E. F. WISE.

LABOUR EXCHANGES.

The Organisation of Industry.

The first Labour Exchanges established by the Board of Trade were opened on February 1st, 1910, but though the system has not been in existence yet for two years its success is assured. By the end of September, 1911, 239 Exchanges were opened and in full working order, and before 1912 begins it is expected that this number will have increased to 300. All the larger towns already have Exchanges, soon every town with more than 25,000 inhabitants, as well as many of the smaller towns, will each possess one, and at the moment by co-operation with the Post Office and by a system of travelling clerks efforts are being made to give effect to the work of the Exchanges in the more purely rural districts. This great national system, tapping every source of supply, answering every demand for labour rapidly and efficiently, is destined to play an enormous part in that closer organisation of national life, which has long been the dream of social reformers. For the present, the Exchanges chiefly carry out their primary duty of putting employers desiring workpeople and workpeople seeking employment into touch with each other, and of saving the delay and economic loss which has hitherto

occurred when, for example, ship-builders on the Tyne have been short of hands, and riveters on the Thames have wandered from yard to yard in a haphazard, demoralising, and often fruitless, search for work. But the network of Exchanges has many other duties yet to perform. Unemployment insurance, for example, is absolutely dependent on the existence of a well-organised system of Labour Exchanges. As the mobility of labour is increased a heavy blow will be struck at the wasteful system by which each individual employer is apt to keep his own reserve of half employed and slowly deteriorating labour waiting at his own gates, instead of calling on a reserve available to the whole trade. Through juvenile advisory committees the entry of lads and girls into blind alley employments—a fruitful source of hooliganism and pauperism—will be prevented. And at the same time an enormous mass of statistical information is being collected which will afford a ready index of the state of the labour market in any particular industry, and will provide the data on which future reforms will be based. In short, the Labour Exchanges afford the necessary machinery for evolving order out of our present industrial chaos.

The Record of Twelve Months' Working.

During the first twelve months of their working 497,067 vacancies were notified by employers, and 404,525 of these were filled by men sent directly by the Exchanges.

Analysed by trades, the work accomplished appears as follows:—

VACANCIES FILLED BY THE EXCHANGES FOR
TWELVE MONTHS ENDING JANUARY, 1911.

| | Men. | Women | Children | Total. |
|--------------------------------|---------|--------|----------|---------|
| Building and construction | 51,158 | — | 1,149 | 52,307 |
| Metals and engineering | 37,263 | 1,163 | 4,590 | 43,016 |
| Textiles & dress | 12,040 | 14,236 | 7,547 | 33,823 |
| Transport and messages | 67,584 | 353 | 18,957 | 86,894 |
| Agriculture | 9,210 | 4,170 | 1,053 | 14,433 |
| Commercial | 7,962 | 2,262 | 4,283 | 14,507 |
| Food and lodging | 7,007 | 8,128 | 4,194 | 19,329 |
| Domes. (out-door) | 1,706 | 26,643 | 4,178 | 32,527 |
| General labourers | 46,111 | — | 711 | 46,822 |
| Other occupat'ns | 29,801 | 12,340 | 18,726 | 60,867 |
| Totals | 269,842 | 69,295 | 65,888 | 404,525 |

The total number of applicants registered at the Exchanges during the period was 1,299,121. These figures represent separate individuals, except in so far as persons register more than once in London and elsewhere, where several Exchanges may be easy of access to the same person. The number of vacancies notified by employers was 507,733. During the later months of 1911 the work of the Exchanges has

steadily increased. Already over 5,000 firms, including some of the largest employers of labour, exhibit the enamelled notice at the gates of their works that men will only be taken on through the nearest Labour Exchange.

That much greater mobility is being given to labour is shown by the figures for men for whom work is found out of their own districts, which for the six months ending July, 1911, reached 32,151, an average of over 1,200 a week. The Board of Trade is specially empowered to advance travelling expenses to men for whom work has been found at a distance on the understanding that it is repaid from wages. Up to the end of March, 1911, nearly 9,000 men had benefited by this provision to the extent of £2,400. Of this amount already £2,200 had been repaid.

This power is not exercised in cases where a lower rate of wages is being offered to the workman than is usually paid in the district and trade, nor where the vacancy has occurred through a labour dispute.

The whole attitude of the Exchanges towards labour troubles is one of neutrality. If the Exchange officials are notified that a strike is in progress, then it is their business to inform all workmen of this fact before sending them to jobs rendered vacant by the dispute. Similarly, men rendered idle by a lock-out are not sent to another employer until he has been informed of the circumstance.

THE COAL MINES BILL.

The Coal Mines Bill, which, after many weeks' consideration in a Standing Committee composed chiefly of mining experts of all parties, was awaiting third reading at the commencement of the autumn session, is the fruit of the labours of the Royal Commission on Mines, ripened more rapidly than generally is the case by the appalling Whitehaven disaster of 1910 and the general increase in the death-rate from mining accidents during the last five years.

Its 128 clauses and 4 schedules consolidate existing legislation, and in addition give largely increased power to the Home Office in the supervision and inspection of mines for the prevention of accidents.

Every mine is to be under the responsible control of a qualified manager—either the owner himself or some person deputed by him. But no man may act or be appointed as manager until he has acquired a certificate of competency from a Board for Mining Examinations composed of six mine-owners, six representatives of working miners, and three Home Office inspectors. On complaint, a public enquiry may be held as to the fit-

ness of any manager to continue to hold a certificate of competency. Elaborate rules are made to secure safety. No portion of a mine is to be considered in a fit state for working or passing in if the air contains less than 19 per cent. of oxygen or more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of carbon-dioxide. Only locked safety-lamps are to be used.

At least two shafts or outlets accessible from every portion of the mine are to be provided, and each is to be supplied with winding apparatus constantly available and periodically inspected. The use of electricity is carefully limited owing to the danger of sparks causing explosions, and numerous other matters, *e.g.*, the prevention of coal dust, the storing and use of explosives, are dealt with in detail. The provision of baths and drying accommodation is made compulsory where a two-thirds majority of the men desire them. Boys under 14 years of age and girls and women of any age are forbidden to work underground. Finally, arrangements are made to fix the responsibility for and to ensure the observance of the provisions of the Act.

ALIEN IMMIGRANTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

There seems no doubt that the Act of 1905 has diminished the number of alien criminals convicted. The following table shows clearly enough the rate at which both the number of alien prisoners and the percentage they bear to the total number of prisoners have decreased:—

| Year. | Total number of prisoners. | Number of alien prisoners. | Percentage of aliens. |
|------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1904 | 198,395 | 4,396 | 2.22 |
| 1905 | 196,168 | 4,088 | 2.08 |
| 1906 | 183,773 | 3,399 | 1.85 |
| 1907 | 174,631 | 2,799 | 1.60 |
| 1908 | 184,708 | 2,999 | 1.62 |
| 1909 | 182,820 | 2,329 | 1.27 |
| 1910 | 168,242 | 2,050 | 1.22 |

No doubt some of this diminution is to be attributed to the increasing dislike of a criminal, if he be an alien, to admit his nationality, for in addition to the ordinary punishment, an alien convicted of crime is liable to expulsion. As a matter of fact, however, the power of recommending for expulsion—the Home Office cannot issue an order for expulsion unless the convicting court recommends this additional punishment—has been very sparingly used. In 1910, for example, out of 2,050 alien criminals in England, only 390, or 19.02 per cent., were recommended for expulsion.

The aliens whom the Courts neglected to expel were not all convicted of petty crimes. H.M. Inspector draws attention to the fact that in London alone, 52 aliens convicted of larceny and receiving, 28 convicted of forgery, coining, false pretences, &c., and 69 convicted of assault, &c., were not recommended for expulsion. But the figures show that the percentage of law-breakers amongst the foreigners resident in our midst is now not ag-

preciable higher than for the rest of the population. During the last year, 5,951 aliens received assistance from the poor law.

The extent of alien immigration has often been grossly exaggerated. Though 610,723 alien passengers landed in the United Kingdom, no less than 596,799 embarked, so that the arrivals exceeded the departures by only 13,944. Indeed, after making various allowances, it is probable that the true excess of arrivals was only about 8,500. Leave to land was refused to 922 persons in all—in 210 cases on medical grounds, and in the remainder for want of means or other causes.

Under the Act, an alien who claims to be a political or religious refugee is allowed to land, though otherwise he would be rejected for want of means. But this right has been claimed in few cases. In 1906 (a year of very disturbed conditions in Russia) there were 505 cases, in 1907 43, in 1908 20, in 1909 30, and in 1910 only 5. The Aliens (Prevention of Crime) Bill introduced by the Home Secretary proposed to require every Court which convicted an alien, either to recommend him for expulsion or to explain its reasons for not utilising this power. Increased penalties were to be inflicted on expelled aliens who returned, and in certain cases sureties for good behaviour could be demanded from suspected persons. The possession of firearms was also stringently dealt with. Mr. Goulding's Aliens Bill, which on Second Reading received the qualified support of Mr. Churchill, was drawn on similar lines, but went much further in the direction of registration of all alien immigrants. During 1910, 1,131 aliens became naturalised British citizens. This small percentage is due to the expense of naturalisation.

EMIGRATION.

The Annual Exodus from the United Kingdom.

The Emigrants' Information Office is at 31, Broadway, Westminster, S.W. Office hours, 10 a.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, 10 a.m. to 1.30 p.m. The notice boards of this Office are exhibited, and the circulars may be obtained free of charge, at more than 1,200 Labour Exchanges, Public Libraries, Urban District Councils, and Institutions. The handbooks also may be obtained at the Imperial Institute, South Kensington, where collections of the products of the various Colonies may be seen. Letters to the Emigrants' Information Office need not be stamped, but prepayment for handbooks must be made. The circulars contain the most complete and reliable information for intending emigrants. Detailed particulars are given of openings and prospects in the Colonies, wages, and the cost of living there, fares, routes, and the best methods of travelling, together with useful hints and warnings. Special enquiries are welcomed by the Office.

The regulations now enforced by the Canadian Government include the following:—

All adult emigrants landing between March 1st and October 31st must possess 25 dol. (£5. 4s.) and children 12.50 dol. (£2. 12s.) each, or, in the winter months, 50 dol. (£10. 8s.) and 25 dol. (£5. 4s.) respectively, in addition to sufficient travelling money. Exceptions are made in favour of farm labourers and domestic servants going to assured employment; of navies who are going out to a contract already arranged; of relatives of Canadian residents (subject to certain conditions). Emigrants who are being sent out by charitable societies or at the public expense must secure a certificate from the Canadian emigration authorities. Any immigrant who within three years of landing becomes a charge on the Canadian funds, or on public charities, may be deported, together with his belongings, back to this country.

The States of the Australian Commonwealth are showing an increased interest in immigration. New South Wales, Queensland, and Western Australia all show a demand for immigrants, and in South Australia, after a lapse of many years, assistance to immigration is being resumed.

The latest development in the immigration policy of the Commonwealth is the encouragement offered to British town-bred lads, the idea being to emigrate them to Australia early and train them for agricultural work before town life has unfitted them for rural pursuits. New South Wales provides for the training of these lads on Government farms or farms maintained by private effort with the support or co-operation of the Government. In Victoria the boy immigrants are distributed direct to the farms to receive their training direct from the farmer.

During the past ten years, emigra-

tion has increased considerably, and 1911 bids fair to constitute a record. The following table gives the numbers of British emigrants from the United Kingdom:—

| | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------|------------|---------|
| 1901 | 72,016 | 1906 | 194,671 |
| 1902 | 101,547 | 1907 | 235,092 |
| 1903 | 147,037 | 1908 | 91,156 |
| 1904 | 126,854 | 1909 | 139,693 |
| 1905 | 139,365 | 1910 | 233,709 |
| 1911 (1st 8 months), 174,028. | | | |

Thus in the decade 1901—1910, 1,481,139 emigrants of British nationality left our shores. The decline in 1908 was due to the American financial crisis.

An increasing majority of British emigrants now proceed to British possessions. During the period 1891—1900, only 28 per cent. went to the Colonies; the remainder were almost entirely absorbed by the United States. For the ten-year period, 1901—1910, the percentages were 56 per cent. to Greater Britain, and 44 per cent. to foreign countries, and actually for 1910, 63 per cent. of British emigrants remained beneath the Union Jack, whilst 32 per cent. proceeded to foreign countries.

The following table gives the destination of the majority of British emigrants in various years:

DESTINATION OF EMIGRANTS.

| | Canada. | Austral- asia. | United States. |
|------------|------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1900 | 7,803 .. | 6,259 .. | 47,973 |
| 1905 | 62,503 .. | 7,251 .. | 60,997 |
| 1906 | 91,263 .. | 9,920 .. | 85,941 |
| 1907 | 117,525 .. | 13,896 .. | 99,944 |
| 1908 | 41,455 .. | 20,423 .. | 31,451 |
| 1909 | 52,378 .. | 25,202 .. | 56,377 |
| 1910 | 115,681 .. | 32,725 .. | 73,569 |

During 1910, 12,415 natives of Ireland, or 7.4 per 1,000 of the population, left their country with the intention of settling elsewhere. Of these, 24,905 went to the United States, 2,096 to Great Britain, 4,416 to Canada, and 1,040 to other countries. It is satisfactory to observe that the total is below the average, but it is disquieting that 87 per cent. of the number were in the prime of life, between 15 and 35 years of age.

Large though the number of British emigrants to the United States may be, it represents scarcely a tenth of the total immigration, and comes fifth on the list of European countries. Russia in 1910 sent 169,908 persons, Italy 163,412, Austria 110,067, and Hungary 101,459. At the same time, however, there is a large and increasing flow from the United States to Canada. The opening up of the great wheat fields of Western Canada has proved irresistibly attractive to the farmers of the American border states, and during the year ending March 31st, 1910, no less than 103,984 persons from the United States settled in the Dominion—a fact of some political importance.

CO-PARTNERSHIP TENANTS.

Extraordinary progress has been made by the co-partnership tenants' societies in membership with the Co-partnerships Tenants Ltd., as the following table shows:—

| Name of Society. | Area of Estates (Acres). | Est. No. of Ho'ses when Completed. | Cost Value of Land and Buildings Year ending— | | Est. June 30th, 1911. | Est. Cost of Estates when Completed. |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------------------|---|----------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | | | 1906. | 1910. | | |
| | | | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Ealing Tenants Ltd. | 60½ | 700 | 53,912 | 158,229 | 180,000 | 270,000 |
| Garden City Tenants Ltd. | 34 | 275 | 37,670 | 82,297 | 91,000 | 95,000 |
| Sevenoaks Tenants Ltd. | 6 | 67 | 14,500 | 19,592 | 20,000 | 21,500 |
| Leicester Anchor Tenants Ltd. | 50 | 500 | — | 20,882 | 25,000 | 150,000 |
| Manchester Tenants Ltd. | 11 | 130 | — | 55,542 | 55,600 | 56,000 |
| Hampstead Tenants Ltd. | 25½ | 286 | — | 139,471 | 140,000 | 142,000 |
| Second Hampstead Tenants Ltd. | 41 | 400 | — | 115,834 | 176,000 | 200,000 |
| Harborne Tenants Ltd. | 53 | 500 | — | 126,162 | 156,000 | 180,000 |
| Fallings Park Garden Suburb Tenants Ltd. | 20 | 200 | — | 19,263 | 19,400 | 40,000 |
| Stoke-on-Trent Tenants Ltd. | 38 | 380 | — | 22,328 | 29,500 | 120,000 |
| Derwentwater Tenants Ltd. | 2½ | 27 | — | 6,572 | 6,800 | 7,509 |
| Liverpool Garden Suburbs Tenants Ltd. | 185 | 1,900 | — | 13,861 | 34,000 | 500,000 |
| Sealand Tenants Ltd. | 47 | 470 | — | 9,660 | 18,000 | 80,000 |
| Third Hampstead Tenants Ltd. | 78½ | 760 | — | 7,890 | 8,000 | 250,900 |
| 14 Societies | 652 | 6,595 | £106,082 | £797,583 | £959,300 | £2,112,000 |
| Bournville Tenants Ltd. | 20 | 150 | 10,802 | 47,247 | 49,300 | 51,000 |
| Sevenoaks Tenants Ltd. | 5 | 74 | 16,550 | 19,223 | 20,660 | 20,660 |
| Wayford Tenants Ltd. | 98 | 18 | — | 2,700 | 2,700 | 5,000 |
| Oldham Garden Suburb | 58½ | 600 | 9,500 | 39,000 | 44,000 | 150,000 |

COMPENSATION ACT OF 1906 AT WORK.

What an enormous boon to the workers of the United Kingdom the Compensation Act, passed by the Liberal Government in their first session in 1906 has proved, is shown by the report on the working of that measure issued by the Home Office for the year 1910.

Seven groups of industries included under the Act of 1906 are dealt with, viz., mines, quarries, railways, factories, harbours and docks, constructional work, and shipping. In these groups 134,820 employers, with an average of over 7 million employes coming under the Act, made returns, with the following result for the year 1910:—

| | |
|--------------------------|------------|
| Fatal cases | 3,510 |
| Average payment | £153 |
| Disablement cases | 378,349 |
| Average payment | £5. 14s. |
| Total compensation | £2,700,325 |

It is noteworthy that very few claims involved litigation. The number of claims which have to be settled judicially is less than 1 in 3 in fatal cases, and about 1 in 250 in cases of disablement. Of the 5,006 cases so settled the decision was in favour of the workmen in 3,938, or 78·6 per cent. The Act of 1906, moreover, has reduced litigation under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, the cases under that measure falling from 604 in 1907 to 217 in 1910.

Compared with 1909 there has been an increase in the cost of compensation per person throughout most of these industries. This is shown by the following table:—

| | COST OF COMPENSATION PER HEAD. | |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|---------|
| | 1909. | 1910. |
| Mines | £1 0 1 .. | £1 0 2 |
| Quarries | 0 9 2 .. | 0 10 3 |
| Railways | 0 8 4 .. | 0 8 0 |
| Factories | 0 3 5 .. | 0 4 3 |
| Docks | 0 16 8 .. | 1 0 6 |
| Constructional | 0 14 11 .. | 0 12 10 |
| Shipping | 0 10 8 .. | 0 12 5 |

| | | |
|-------------|------------|--------|
| Total | £0 6 10 .. | £0 7 8 |
|-------------|------------|--------|

COST OF COMPENSATION IN FACTORIES IN 1910.

| | s. d. |
|-------------------------------------|-------|
| Cotton | 2 3 |
| Wool, Worsted, Shoddy | 1 8 |
| Other Textiles | 1 5 |
| Wood | 7 6 |
| Metal (Founding and Galvanising) .. | 8 8 |
| Engine and Shipbuilding | 12 10 |
| Machine and Tools | 5 0½ |
| Paper and Printing | 1 10 |
| China and Earthenware | 3 0½ |

It is noteworthy that all these figures except those for wood and china show an increase on the figures for 1909.

There are other charges in this connection borne by these industries which would not enter into the total compensation given above. The figures do not include compensation paid under a certified contracting-out scheme or damages recovered under the Employers' Liability or other Acts or at common law. The total charge therefore is estimated not to fall far short of 4 millions sterling.

The percentage which the cost of compensation bears to wages paid is not generally obtainable, but in the railway services it is estimated at 15s. 11d. per £100 of wages paid.

THE COST OF LIVING.

A Rise in the World's Prices.

The general rise in the cost of living, with which the labour troubles of 1911 are probably not remotely connected, and which has led to riot and martial law in France and other continental countries, is a matter which admits of direct statistical proof by the method of index numbers.

A certain number of representative commodities are chosen, and the price of each of them in any year is worked out as a percentage of its price in a given standard year. Thus the price of bacon in 1910 was £3. 15s. per cwt., and in 1900 its price was £3 per cwt. If 1900 be taken as the standard year, and the price for that year be represented by 100, then the price of bacon for 1910 will be represented by 125. This method may be applied to a large number of commodities, and hence an indication may be obtained of the general movement of prices. By basing the Index Number on a sufficiently large number of well-chosen commodities, an accurate indication will be obtained of the change in the purchasing power of money, and therefore in the cost of living, apart from rent. Clearly a rise in the index number means that fewer commodities may be purchased for a sovereign, and a fall means that more may be obtained.

So far as wholesale prices in England are concerned, three sets of index numbers have been constructed—by "The Economist," by Mr. A. Sauerbeck, and by the Board of Trade. These are based on a different selection of articles, and in the three calculations varying importance is ascribed to the same article. But though the results differ in detail, there is an almost complete measure of agreement in disclosing the larger movements of prices. This will be at once seen from the table appended, which represents the three sets of index numbers for certain recent years reduced to the same base.

| | "Economist." Sauerbeck. | | Board of Trade. | |
|------|-------------------------|-----|-----------------|--|
| 1895 | 88 | 83 | 91 | |
| 1900 | 100 | 100 | 100 | |
| 1905 | 98 | 96 | 97.6 | |
| 1910 | 109 | 104 | 108.8 | |

The following table exhibits the movement in prices in various groups:—

| Year. | Index Number of Groups. | | | | | | | Index No. of 45 selected articles. |
|-------|-------------------------|---------------------------|-------|----------------|--------------------------|----------------|-------|------------------------------------|
| | Coal and Metals. | Textiles (raw materials). | Corn. | Meat, Fish &c. | Sugar, Tea, and Tobacco. | Miscellaneous. | | |
| 1871 | 68.3 | 146.4 | 163.5 | 111.5 | 220.0 | 145.1 | 136.0 | |
| 1875 | 84.6 | 147.3 | 161.3 | 130.3 | 198.5 | 140.3 | 141.4 | |
| 1880 | 64.8 | 130.0 | 159.1 | 117.9 | 183.6 | 124.4 | 129.6 | |
| 1885 | 54.6 | 108.9 | 123.7 | 106.8 | 133.0 | 111.4 | 107.7 | |
| 1890 | 74.9 | 105.4 | 115.7 | 101.1 | 123.8 | 99.4 | 104.0 | |
| 1895 | 56.8 | 84.3 | 100.3 | 97.2 | 106.4 | 84.9 | 91.0 | |
| 1900 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| 1905 | 71.3 | 106.7 | 104.2 | 98.2 | 103.6 | 91.1 | 97.6 | |
| 1910 | 76.6 | 136.1 | 105.7 | 111.6 | 109.9 | 104.2 | 108.8 | |

The years 1871-1875 were the culmination of a period of increasing prices, in which the Franco-German War had played its part. From 1875 to the nineties prices fell rapidly. The development of means of transport, which brought the product of the whole world to our doors, provided the working man with low-priced food and the manufacturer with cheap raw material. Industry developed at so great a rate that the volume of goods was sufficient to prevent prices rising in markets where demand, stimulated by improved standards of living, was always rising. The supply of gold, it is true, was increasing also—and the effect of changes in the value of gold on the world's prices must be remembered—but trade expanded at such a rate that the requirements of the world's commercial centres rose much faster than the means of satisfying them.

During the last 15 years prices have gone up again. In this the increased supply of gold from South Africa has played a large part. The effect also of the development of trusts and tariffs in hindering the cheap and economical production of common necessities in various countries cannot be neglected. But a very important factor has certainly been the heavy drain on capital caused by the South African and Russo-Japanese Wars, and the increase of armaments generally. Money cannot be poured forth in unproductive and economically wasteful enterprises, and huge masses of men cannot be drawn from useful work without diminishing the world supply of the necessities of life. Consequently the price of militarism is indirectly paid when sevenspence is required to purchase articles for which sixpence only would have been asked 15 years ago.

In addition to these investigations into wholesale prices, the Board of Trade has compiled an index number of retail prices since 1896, based on the prices of food in London, due credit being given to each article according to the extent to which it is consumed by the average working-class family. These completely bear out the conclusions based on the wholesale prices. Thus:—

| Year. | Index Number. | Year. | Index Number. |
|-------|---------------|-------|---------------|
| 1896 | 92.0 | 1903 | 103.2 |
| 1897 | 96.0 | 1904 | 104.3 |
| 1898 | 100.8 | 1905 | 103.7 |
| 1899 | 96.4 | 1906 | 103.2 |
| 1900 | 100.0 | 1907 | 105.8 |
| 1901 | 101.9 | 1908 | 108.4 |
| 1902 | 101.6 | 1909 | 108.2 |
| | | 1910 | 109.9 |

It would indeed be a matter of grave concern if this rise in prices was peculiar to Great Britain. Far from this being the case, other nations have

suffered much more than ourselves. There have been murmurs of discontent in London, but food riots in Vienna, Berlin, and Paris. We have been able to call upon the whole world for supplies, and, despite this, our prices have risen. It is not surprising to find, therefore, that in other countries which deliberately hinder the entrance of foreign products into their markets, the rise has been much more pronounced, and the corresponding results more disastrous to the helpless working classes. The index numbers of our commercial rivals point to a much greater increase in the cost of commodities than our own. Contrast the following figures taken, except in the case of France, from the official publications of the respective Governments:—

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES.

| Year. | GREAT BRITAIN (Board of Trade) 1900=100. | U.S.A. (Bureau of Labour) 1890-1899=100. | GERMANY (Schmitz) 1878-1888=100. | CANADA (Labour Office) 1890-1899=100. | FRANCE (Reform Econo- mique) 1890=100. |
|-------|--|--|--|---|--|
| 1890 | 104.0 | 112.9 | 107.5 | 112.0 | 100.0 |
| 1891 | 107.4 | 111.7 | 104.7 | 111.3 | 99.6 |
| 1892 | 101.8 | 106.1 | 95.4 | 104.9 | 94.2 |
| 1893 | 100.0 | 105.6 | 92.2 | 103.9 | 97.6 |
| 1894 | 94.2 | 96.1 | 83.8 | 97.2 | 89.4 |
| 1895 | 91.0 | 93.6 | 83.5 | 95.6 | 84.4 |
| 1896 | 88.2 | 90.4 | 83.9 | 90.6 | 82.2 |
| 1897 | 90.1 | 89.7 | 85.8 | 89.9 | 83.4 |
| 1898 | 93.2 | 93.4 | 90.6 | 85.5 | 87.6 |
| 1899 | 92.3 | 101.7 | 98.4 | 99.0 | 95.6 |
| 1900 | 100.0 | 110.5 | 106.5 | 105.8 | 102.4 |
| 1901 | 96.9 | 108.5 | 100.1 | 106.0 | 95.8 |
| 1902 | 96.5 | 112.9 | 99.0 | 109.6 | 94.2 |
| 1903 | 96.9 | 113.6 | 100.6 | 109.7 | 95.8 |
| 1904 | 98.3 | 113.0 | 100.2 | 110.6 | 95.2 |
| 1905 | 97.6 | 115.9 | 103.5 | 113.8 | 96.8 |
| 1906 | 100.4 | 122.5 | 112.1 | 120.1 | 105.1 |
| 1907 | 105.7 | 129.5 | 119.4 | 129.2 | 112.2 |
| 1908 | 102.8 | 122.8 | 112.9 | 125.1 | * |
| 1909 | 104.0 | 126.5 | 111.7 | 126.3 | * |
| 1910 | 108.8 | 131.6 | 113.6 | * | * |

What do these figures show? Taking the year of lowest prices, 1896, in 14 years the index number of British prices has risen from 88.2 to 108.8, roughly 23 per cent. In the same period prices in the United States have risen from 90.4 to 131.6, or over 45 per cent.—practically twice as much as our own; in Germany they have risen from 83.9 to 113.6, or 35 per cent.; in Canada the rise has been from 89.9 to 126.3 for 1909 (but 1910 figures are probably considerably higher), or 40 per cent.; in

France up to 1907 the rise had been 36 per cent.

Closer examination of the American figures, as published by the Bureau of Labour at Washington, reveals some astonishing facts. Taking food, the average wholesale price of cheese in New York in 1896 was 43d. per pound; in 1910 it was 73d. Dairy butter rose from 84d. in 1896 to 104d. in 1900 and 144d. per pound in 1910. Salt beef stood at £1. 11s. 3d. per barrel in 1896, at £2. 0s. 7d. in 1900, and at £3. 0s. 9d. in 1910. As compared with this rise of 97 per cent., beef in England rose 15 per cent. Wheat in Chicago moved from 2s. 8d. per bushel in 1896 to 4s. 62d. per bushel in 1910—a rise of 71 per cent. The corresponding English rise was 21 per cent.

Nor are food stuffs exceptional. The raw materials of industry and manufactured goods tell the same story. Petroleum provides an interesting feature. In England the price has decreased 16 per cent. since 1896, consequently, no doubt, on the opening up of fresh sources of supply in Southern Russia. But the American market is in the grip of the Standard Oil Trust, and possible foreign competitors are rigorously kept outside by a high tariff wall. Thus the price in New York has almost steadily risen until two years ago. And it is now 4 per cent. higher than in 1896 and 21 per cent. higher than the average for the period 1890-1899.

It must not be supposed, however, that the rise in America and other countries has been greater because prices out of England started at a lower level. Precisely the contrary is the case. The general level of prices is considerably lower in England than in either America or Germany. The Board of Trade enquiry into working class rents, housing, and retail prices in the United Kingdom (1908), Germany (1908), and the United States (1910) showed that the cost of the commodities consumed in an average British workman's family was 17 per cent. higher in Germany and 43 per cent. higher in the United States than in Great Britain. With one exception, pork, actual prices in the States were higher than in England, but the prices of meat were highest of all in Germany. Flour was found to be 39 per cent. in the States and 40 per cent. in Germany dearer than in Great Britain, and for bread the American workman pays almost two and a half times the English price.

A Labour Newspaper.

A project on which the Labour Party has long set its heart—the establishment of a Labour daily paper which would be the authoritative organ of the movement—bids fair to come to fruition in 1912.

The new daily will be published at a halfpenny from Manchester by a com-

pany of which Mr. W. C. Anderson is chairman. It is proposed that, after 4 per cent. on capital has been paid, further profits shall go to the Party funds. It is interesting that in Germany 74, and in Denmark 33, daily papers appear as Labour and Socialist organs.

THE COST OF LIVING—(con.)

The American Workman.

The Board of Trade enquiries into the cost of living in the United Kingdom, in Belgium, Germany, and France were noticed in the "Daily News Year Book" in 1910 and 1911. This year there has been issued the result of the American enquiry.

We give side by side the American and English figures of weekly wages and hours of labour in certain trades, with the caution that the English figures are for 1905, the American figures for 1909. The mean of wages works out at 230 in the U.S.A. to 100 in Great Britain. This does not, of course, represent real wages, which must be ascertained by a further comparison with the purchasing power of money in the two countries. The report also states that the figures appear to be somewhat weighted in favour of the United States.

The American workman therefore receives much higher money wages than his British brother. On the other hand, rent is twice as heavy an item in the weekly expenditure, and the price of food, when adjusted to prices ruling in February, 1909, is 25 per cent. heavier. Expenditure on fuel, gas, clothing, and travelling to and from work are all heavier; still it would appear that when all these things are taken into account the margin left for the worker is greater in the United States than it is in this country.

The following table shows the predominant weekly rents of working-class dwellings in England and Wales and in the United Kingdom:—

| Rooms per Dwelling. | England and Wales. | | United States. | |
|---------------------|--------------------|--------|----------------|----------|
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| Three | 3 9 | to 4 6 | 6 9 | to 9 7 |
| Four | 4 6 | to 5 6 | 8 8 | to 12 0 |
| Five | 5 6 | to 6 6 | 11 6 | to 14 11 |
| Six | 6 6 | to 7 9 | 13 0 | to 17 4 |

The Report gives "an average American budget," with cost in pence in England and Wales and in the United States respectively:

| Commodity. | Quantity. Average American Budget. lb. | Cost in pence. | |
|----------------|--|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| | | England and Wales. d. | United States. d. |
| Sugar | 5½ | 10½ | 15 |
| Cheese | ½ | 3½ | 5 |
| Butter | 2 | 26½ | 33½ |
| Potatoes | 21 | 9 | 21 |
| Flour | 10½ | 13½ | 18½ |
| Bread | 8½ | 10½ | 23 |
| Milk | 5½ qts. | 18½ | 24 |
| Beef | 6½ | 45½ | 47½ |
| Mutton | 1½ | 8 | 9½ |
| Pork | 2½ | 18 | 14½ |
| Bacon | 1½ | 14 | 16½ |
| Total | 177½ | 227½ | |

A less rosy picture of the lot of the American worker is provided by the Report on the Condition of Women and Child Labour in the cotton trade in the U.S.A. by Mr. Charles P. Neill, the Commissioner of Labour. The percentage of women to the total number of workers in the trade is 40.2; of children 12.9.

The Southern States have had to recruit their mill labour largely from mountain districts. Enquiry was made as to the condition of 844 families whose members were brought into the cotton mills. Of these, 167 lived in frame houses, 172 in box houses, 467 in log houses, and 33 in houses described as combinations of these types; 279 of these dwellings were "without even windows." Again, of these 844 families—

245 lived in single-room houses.
331 in houses of 2 rooms.
137 in houses of 3 rooms.
69 in houses of 4 rooms
62 in houses of from 5 to 9 rooms.

Of the 245 living in houses containing only one room, there were 2 people who lived alone, 14 families of 2 persons each, 37 families of 3 persons, 68 families of 5 persons, 39 families of 6 persons, and 57 families of from 7 to 12 persons each. In 155 cases 5 persons slept in a single room, and in 129 cases 6 persons did so, the numbers being graded till we find 12 persons sleeping in one room.

WAGES AND HOURS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE U.S.A.

| | Weekly Wages. | | | | Hours. | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------|----------------------|----------------|------------------------------|----|----------------------------|--|
| | England and Wales, 1905. | | United States, 1909. | | England & Wales, Oct., 1905. | | United States, Feb., 1909. | |
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | | | | |
| Building Trades— | | | | | | | | |
| Bricklayers | 37 | 6 to 40 | 6 | 110 0 to 125 0 | 53 | .. | 46 | |
| Stonemasons | 37 | 2 to 39 | 4 | 93 3 to 110 0 | 52 | .. | 46½ | |
| Carpenters | 36 | 2 to 39 | 4 | 68 0 to 90 0 | 53 | .. | 47½ | |
| Joiners | 36 | 6 to 41 | 8 | 100 0 to 119 2 | 53 | .. | 46½ | |
| Plasterers | 35 | 4 to 39 | 9 | 87 6 to 112 6 | 53½ | .. | 47½ | |
| Plumbers | 31 | 6 to 37 | 6 | 65 0 to 85 0 | 53½ | .. | 47½ | |
| Painters | 24 | 4 to 27 | 0 | 50 0 to 68 9 | 52½ | .. | 48½ | |
| Hod Carriers | | | | | | | | |
| Engineering Trades— | | | | | | | | |
| Fitters | 82 | 0 to 36 | 0 | 63 4 to 74 6 | 53 | .. | 56½ | |
| Turners | 82 | 0 to 36 | 0 | 67 8 to 85 4 | 53 | .. | 56 | |
| Smiths | 34 | 0 to 38 | 0 | 74 0 to 91 8 | 53 | .. | 56½ | |
| Patternmakers | 18 | 0 to 22 | 0 | 37 6 to 43 9 | 53 | .. | 56½ | |
| Labourers | | | | | | | | |

Market Prices in 1910-11.

The general trend of prices during the 12 months embraced in the above table proved on the up grade. This became more pronounced in the early summer, so soon as it was recognised that lack of sufficient moisture in all probability lead to a precarious condition of the pastures and the root

crops. Unfortunately, these prognostications proved to be well founded, and the position developed so seriously as to cause holders of live stock to resort to winter feed, owing to pastures having become quite parched over a very extensive area in Europe. In Germany, Government assistance had to be

WHOLESALE LONDON PRICES.—SEPT., 1910, TO SEPT., 1911.

| Article. | Sept., 1910. | Dec., 1910. | Mar., 1911. | June, 1911. | Sept., 1911. |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Eggs (per 120), French .. | 10/6 to 14/6 | 15/- to 24/- | 8/- to 9/9 | 8/9 to 11/6 | 10/- to 15/- |
| Italian .. | 10/6 11/6 | 13/6 15/6 | 8/- 8/9 | 8/6 9/6 | 10/- 11/- |
| Danish .. | 10/- 11/9 | 14/- 17/6 | 7/6 9/- | 8/- 10/3 | 9/6 11/6 |
| Potatoes , Old, per ton .. | 50/- 65/- | 60/- 95/- | 75/- 100/- | 85/- 120/- | 70/- 95/- |
| New, per cwt. | — | — | 12/- 13/- | 5/- 10/- | — |
| Clover (Best) | 86/- 95/- | 82/6 92/6 | 80/- 92/6 | 84/- 95/- | 100/- 115/- |
| Hay | 70/- 84/- | 70/- 82/6 | 70/- 82/6 | 70/- 82/6 | 85/- 110/- |
| Raisins , Valencia (½-boxes) .. | 37/- 39/- | 31/- 32/- | 38/- | 37/- | 33/- 34/- |
| Currants , Pyrges | 27/- 28/- | 27/6 27/9 | 28/6 29/- | 26/6 27/6 | 25/9 |
| Rice , Rangoon | 7/3 7/6 | 7/- | 7/3 7/7½ | 7/10½ 8/1½ | Nominal. |
| Tapioca , Flake | -/1½ -/2½ | -/1½ -/2½ | -/2½ -/2½ | -/2½ -/2½ | -/2½ -/2½ |
| Tea , Indian and Ceylon | | | | | |
| Pekoe (common to good) .. | -/5½ 1/0½ | -/7½ 1/- | 8/- 1/2 | -/7½ 1/1½ | -/7½ 1/0½ |
| Cocoa , Ceylon | 58/- 74/- | 58/- 74/- | 62/- 76/- | 55/- 85/- | 61/- 85/- |
| Trinidad | 55/- 63/- | 56/- 62/- | 57/- 65/- | 56/- 65/- | 61/- 65/- |
| Sugar , Tate's No. 1 Cubes .. | 21/- | 17/6 | 18/4½ | 19/1½ | 26/9 |
| Beet 88 per cent., prompt f.o.b. | 11/7 | 8/10½ | 10/4½ | 10/10½ | 18/- |
| Coffee , Santos | 44/- | 51/9 | 50/- | 51/9 | 62/3 |
| Wheat , English Fine White .. | 35/- | 35/- | 35/6 | 36/- | 36/6 |
| Red | 34/- | 34/- | 34/6 | 35/- | 35/6 |
| Foreign Manitoba, No. 1 | 39/6 | 38/3 | 37/6 | 38/- | 41/- |
| Flour , Town Households .. | 27/6 | 28/6 | 27/6 | 27/- | 27/9 |
| | Scotch short sides, | Scotch short sides, | | | |
| Beef , British | 4/8 4/10 | 4/4 4/6 | 4/4 4/6 | 4/4 4/6 | 4/4 4/6 |
| American (home kill'd) .. | 3/10 4/2 | 3/7 3/11 | 3/9 4/- | 3/8 4/- | 3/6 3/10 |
| Refrigerated .. | 4/2 4/6 | 3/7 4/- | 4/- 4/4 | 4/- 4/4 | 2/8 3/6 |
| Argentine, chilled | 3/2 3/10 | 2/10 3/4 | 2/8 3/2 | 2/4 2/8 | 2/10 3/4 |
| Mutton , British | 4/6 4/10 | 4/8 5/- | 4/4 4/8 | 4/4 4/8 | 4/4 4/8 |
| Dutch | 4/- | 4/- | — | 2/4 2/6 | 3/8 4/- |
| * Australian | 2/8 2/9 | 2/9 2/10 | 2/4 2/7 | 2/8 2/10 | 2/9 2/1½ |
| River Plate | 2/4 2/6 | 2/2 2/4 | 2/- 2/3 | 3/6 3/8 | 2/3 2/4 |
| Pork , English (per 8 lbs.) .. | 4/- 4/8 | 3/8 4/4 | 4/- 4/8 | — | 3/6 4/2 |
| Butter , Irish Creamery .. | 112/- 116/- | 104/- 108/- | Nominal. | 106/- 108/- | 128/- 134/- |
| Dutch | 114/- 116/- | 114/- 118/- | 126/- 130/- | 110/- 112/- | 140/- 144/- |
| Danish | 114/- 117/- | 112/- 114/- | 119/- 121/- | 115/- 116/- | 144/- 147/- |
| French | 108/- 118/- | 116/- 120/- | 112/- 116/- | 110/- 114/- | 130/- 132/- |
| Australian | 114/- 118/- | 96/- 102/- | 96/- 106/- | 100/- 108/- | 128/- 134/- |
| Russian | 106/- 108/- | 96/- 100/- | 104/- 100/- | 100/- 104/- | 124/- 130/- |
| Cheese , English (Cheddar) .. | 68/- 68/- | 65/- 74/- | 68/- 78/- | 74/- 80/- | 78/- 86/- |
| Canadian | 63/- 56/- | 56/- 59/- | 61/- 65/- | 55/- 63/- | 70/- 72/- |
| New Zealand | Nominal. | 55/- 57/- | 60/- 61/- | 60/- | Nominal. |
| Dutch | 34/- 64/- | 36/- 67/- | 34/- 67/- | 28/- 62/- | 50/- 78/- |
| Bacon , Irish | 73/- 81/- | 59/- 72/- | 58/- 71/- | 62/- 74/- | 66/- 73/- |
| Continental | 58/- 76/- | 56/- 67/- | 50/- 68/- | 57/- 72/- | 58/- 70/- |
| Canadian | 71/- 77/- | 56/- 60/- | 54/- 63/- | 58/- 65/- | 58/- 64/- |
| American | 77/- 82/- | 59/- 72/- | 56/- 61/- | 52/- 56/- | 56/- 64/- |
| Hams , Irish | 98/- 112/- | 94/- 120/- | 90/- 108/- | 96/- 108/- | 100/- 110/- |
| Canadian | 92/- 96/- | 58/- 70/- | 52/- 70/- | 72/- 83/- | 60/- 75/- |
| American | 47/- 95/- | 56/- 82/- | 42/0 78/- | 43/- 74/- | 34/- 73/- |

* In some cases prices are quoted to New Zealand mutton.

given the breeder and grazier in the shape of carrying feeding-stuffs on the railways at a nominal charge, as the forced selling of stock had assumed alarming proportions and bade fair to denude the nation of live stock at no very distant date. A similar state

of affairs obtained at one period in the United Kingdom, where holders of live stock found the operation of keeping same far too expensive in a great many districts, and had perforce to quit their holdings at unremunerative prices. Fortunately rains,

though belated, improved the pastures to a great extent, and tended to relieve a very trying and anxious time. However, the all-important cereal wheat proved the crop of the year both at home and in near continental countries. This militated against the marked and sustained rise in prices which otherwise would have occurred owing to the surpluse available for export by Russia being a matter of 12,000,000 to 14,000,000 quarters as compared with 28,000,000 last season. When the number of European countries that make no attempt to produce up to their requirements is borne in mind, any marked diminution in supplies of exporting countries constitutes a disturbing factor in the situation to say the least. A liberal yield in France relieved that country of the marked stringency existing during last season as the outcome of a deficient crop. Prices for sugar have advanced about £8 per ton in consequence of the partial failure of the beet crop in Europe, and this, too, in spite of a record heavy crop last year. So great an inroad was made into this, however, during a period of low prices, as to leave available stocks at the end of the campaign on a lower scale than the preceding year. Naturally, larger supplies of cane descriptions are attracted to the United Kingdom by the much higher rates in force, but no lasting relaxation in the position is anticipated until the turn of the year, when the important Cuban crop begins to be put

into circulation. It is to be hoped that nature will be kind enough to supply the larger quantity of 400,000 to 500,000 tons anticipated in the island against last output, as otherwise famine prices for the article must of a necessity obtain. *Coffee* experienced a substantial advance extended over many months, which however has not been expressed to any extent in the retail price, as this is really one of the few articles in this country that is not cut. Sufficient profit is made from the actual consumer to admit of a liberal rise in the wholesale price without interfering with the retail level. A feature in the *tea* market has been a sustained higher level for all common grades, which has rendered the operation of keeping a 1s. or even a 1s. 2d. canister in the poorer districts a difficult matter. With an exceptionally heavy eastern demand for *rice*, prices ruling quite put a stop to general trade as far as Europe was concerned, and after the Burma supplies had been exploited by China, Japan, and India, attention was turned to Siam and Saigon, until the latter Government, bearing in mind home requirements, prohibited further exports. This led to considerable uneasiness on the part of European millers, not to mention starch manufacturers. There is still a strong demand for the *soya bean*, and with supplies coming forward on a liberal scale cotton-seed continues to become more and more displaced.

Index Numbers of the Cost of Living in the United States, Germany, and Great Britain.

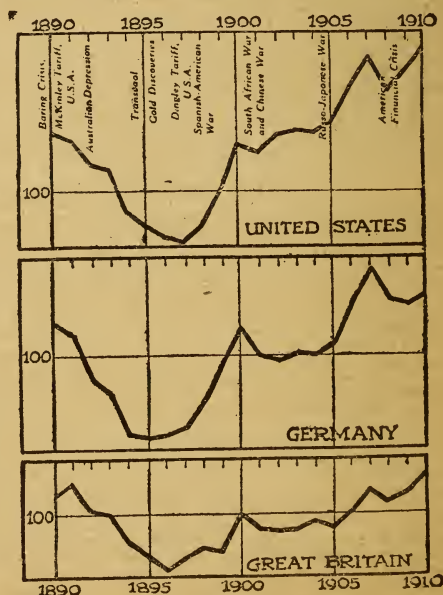
This diagram exhibits the variation in the cost of living within the last 20 years in the United States, Germany, and Great Britain. Unfortunately there are not sufficient available data for fixing the actual relation of the cost of living at the starting point, denoted by the 100, but the figures given in the article above, and in those in the "Daily News" Year Books of 1910 and 1911, show that the base is considerably lower in the United Kingdom than either in Germany or America.

The Rise in American Prices.

The provisions for a fortnight's purchases in America in 1896 and 1911 were given by Mr. Hersom, of the American Free Trade League, as follows:—

| | 1896. | 1911. |
|-----------------------------|--------|---------|
| 4lbs. salt pork | \$0.24 | 0.72 |
| 3lbs. roast pork | .56 | 1.60 |
| 5lbs. smoked shoulder | .35 | .75 |
| 4lbs. bacon | .48 | 1.08 |
| 2lbs. sausage | .16 | .44 |
| 5lb. pall of lard | .30 | .90 |
| 5lbs. corned beef | .40 | .75 |
| 5lbs. butter | 1.10 | 1.90 |
| 4 doz. eggs | .88 | 2.00 |
| 2lbs. cheese | .24 | .44 |
| 2 qts. beans | .12 | .25 |
| 1 bag flour | .55 | .94 |
| 10lbs. sugar | .45 | .60 |
| Total | \$5.99 | \$12.37 |

Thus there has been in 14 years a rise in the prices of ordinary food of about 125 per cent., which Mr. Hersom traces to the tariff.



FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

Trade Unions and Friendly Societies spring from the same stock, the medieval trade or craft guilds. In the former the trade protection side of the guild is paramount, whilst in the latter is to be found the modern embodiment of their traditions of brotherhood and mutual assistance.

The ceremonial of the Friendly Societies, preserved especially in rural districts, the annual feast and procession to church, the procession of all the brethren on the occasion of the funeral of one of them, the ritual of the lodges, are almost certainly survivals of the customs of the medieval guilds. Many orders date back their foundation to immemorial antiquity. As a matter of fact, however, there is little, if any, record of any existing society earlier than the 17th century. The appearance of the Friendly Society is coincident with the final disappearance of the guild, and the one absorbed many of the ideals and usages of the other.

The Friendly Society as it exists today is mainly the product of the constructive genius and faculty of association of British working men. Yet not entirely so, for it was the Protestant refugees of Spitalfields—whose society still exists—who bridged the gulf between the old guild and the new form of provident insurance. Rose's Act (1793) first gave the movement legislative recognition and encouragement in the shape of the removal of various burdensome taxes. With this the societies grew rapidly in number. At first they were mostly small bodies of working men among whom greater importance was attached to the convivial and social than to the insurance side. But the aspect of the utility of association, excellently

put by a parliamentary committee of 1825: "Whenever there is a contingency the cheapest way of providing against it is by uniting with others, so that each man may subject himself to a small deprivation, in order that no man may be subjected to a great loss," led to a large increase in the insurance work of the societies.

The absence in many cases of sound financial foundations and the ease with which the officials could commit fraud soon led to a clear recognition of the necessity of some form of legislative security for the savings of the members. Thus there came into existence in 1829 the **system of registration**, which, modified and amended in many particulars, still exists. No society is bound to register, but registration affords many advantages to a properly conducted society and security to individual members.

Registered societies are bound to return annually particulars of their receipts and expenditure, and, every five years, valuations of their assets and liabilities. The officials of a registered society are to some extent controlled, and the rights of members safeguarded by a power on the part of the chief registrar, on the requisition of a certain proportion of the membership, to have the accounts examined by an inspector, or to call a general meeting of the members.

The Chief Registrar can warn and, with all the authority of his experience, advise societies, but the responsibility of action rests always with the members. Democratic self-government and independence of outside interference have contributed much to the success and development of the movement.

The Different Types of Society.

(1) **Ordinary Friendly Societies**, which generally offer insurance against sickness and death, medical aid, sometimes old age pay, and various other forms of benefit. They vary in size from the small village club to the Hearts of Oak with its membership of over 300,000.

(2) **Affiliated Orders**, such as the Oddfellows and Foresters, with some form of central organisation and innumerable small branches, each of which possesses a large measure of autonomy.

Sickness, death, and medical benefits are almost invariably given, and frequently other benefits of varied kinds are added.

Just as an ordinary Friendly Society enables an individual's risk to be spread over his fellow members, so an affiliated order enables the risk of one branch to be distributed over the other branches of the order.

(3) **Deposit Societies** combine individual saving with insurance against

sickness. The surplus funds are, as in dividing societies, divided among the members, but instead of being shared out they are added to members' deposits. Their advantage lies in the fact that members can in case of necessity realise their interest in a society, and the sum payable on retirement or death depends in great measure on length of membership.

(4) **Dividing Societies** have as a distinguishing feature an annual share out of surplus funds. As a rule, there is practically no accumulation of funds from year to year, and consequently no permanent provision for old age or prolonged sickness is possible.

(5) **Collecting Societies** chiefly concern themselves with death insurance. Their paid officials gather in the members' pennies weekly by house to house visitation, and they operate over wide areas. The social side of the Friendly Society work is almost entirely absent, and sickness insurance is quite an unimportant feature.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES—(con.)

Membership and Funds.

The membership and funds of various forms of societies are shown by the following table, for the years 1898 and 1908—the last year for which complete figures have been published.

| Society. | Year. | No. of Societies or Bran's. | Membership. | Funds at end of Year. |
|--------------------|-------|-----------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Ordinary | | | | £ |
| Friendly Societies | 1898 | 7,161 | 2,725,533 | 13,170,214 |
| | 1908 | 6,518 | 3,473,712 | 20,009,658 |
| Affiliated | 1898 | 21,557 | 2,555,736 | 18,506,183 |
| Orders.. | 1908 | 20,813 | 2,704,404 | 26,378,572 |
| Collecting | 1898 | 39 | 5,553,827 | 4,832,573 |
| Societies | 1908 | 53 | 6,726,747 | 8,471,012 |

Included in the ordinary Friendly Societies are the dividing societies for which only a quinquennial return is issued. In 1905 there were 1,420 such societies, with a membership of 262,659, and funds of £205,629.

The extent of the work performed by the largest societies of each type will be seen from the table at the close of this article.

In considering the figures below it should be noted that the membership of the typical collecting societies includes many infants and juveniles. For all the registered collecting societies in 1908 the Registrar-General reported that the sum of £1,008,520 was

paid in respect of the death benefits of 106,841 persons. Of these 25,391 were children under 10 years of age.

The proportional cost of management and expenditure on various benefits for the different types of Friendly Society are shown by the following table:—

| Expenditure on | Collecting Societies, 1908. | Foresters, 1910. | Reclaimers, 1910. | Hearts of Oak, 1910. |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Sickness and medical .. | 0 | 54.8 | 48.4 | 53.9 |
| Sums at death | 34.8 | 13.0 | 5.3 | 9.0 |
| Other benefits | 2.5 | — | 6.3 | 6.3 |
| Management | 39.1 | 10.1 | 12.9 | 5.6 |
| Other payments | 1.4 | 1.9 | 0 | 4.1 |
| Saved | 21.6 | 20.2 | 26.2 | 21.9 |

The Registrar-General in his report draws special attention to the fact that of every £100 spent by collecting societies in 1908 £49. 9s. went in management expenses.

The last report of the Chief Registrar on the Valuation Returns of 804 societies, which together contained 5,904,093 members, showed that 283 of these societies, with over 5,000,000 members, were actuarially solvent with a surplus of £997,853, but 521, with a total membership of just over half a million, were insolvent, and showed a total deficiency of £1,707,653. E. F. WISE.

Statistics of Friendly Societies, 1909.

Except where otherwise stated, the figures refer to adult male members.

| Society. | Members. | Income. | Accumulated Funds | Sick Benefit | Funeral and Death Benefits | Other Benefits | Total Benefits. |
|---------------------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| AFFILIATED ORDERS. | | | | | | | |
| M.U. Oddfellows | 749,363 | £ 1,621,627 | £ 12,325,379 | £ 767,171 | £ 135,676 | £ 106,474 | £ 1,009,321 |
| A.O. Foresters | 608,728 | 1,236,274 | 8,049,271 | 629,737 | 145,384 | 144,266 | 919,388 |
| Bechabites (S.U.) | 206,112 | 367,496 | 1,386,394 | 207,523 | 25,185 | 82,043 | 314,771 |
| CENTRALISED SOCIETIES. | | | | | | | |
| Hearts of Oak | 301,154 | 722,340 | 3,781,165 | 408,449 | 68,215 | 52,169 | 528,833 |
| National Deposit (all m'bers) | 201,849 | 307,355 | 1,125,097 | 76,434 | 2,039 | 94,129 | 172,602 |
| COLLECTING SOCIETIES. | | | | | | | |
| Royal Liver (1908) (all m'bers) | 2,443,394 | 1,070,228 | 3,058,818 | — | 369,588 | 50,527 | 420,115 |
| Liverpool Victoria (all m'bers) | 2,351,462 | 1,199,574 | 3,471,460 | — | 374,872 | 12,118 | 386,990 |

Industry and Human Life.

Industry levied a larger toll on human life in 1910 than in 1909. Four thousand five hundred and twenty-three workpeople lost their lives in industrial accidents. Mining claimed 1,818 victims, disasters in Cumberland and Lancashire making this total heavier than usual; the sea was responsible for 1,154; the railways for 426; and factories and workshops, subject to Home Office inspection, 822. The relative danger of various callings is shown by the following table, which gives the mean annual death rate from accidents per 10,000 employed for the five years 1906-1910:—

| | |
|---|------|
| Seamen | 46.1 |
| Miners | 14.2 |
| Quarrymen | 10.3 |
| Railway servants | 10.3 |
| Non-textile factory and workshop operatives | 2.2 |
| Textile factory operatives | 0.7 |

For all the occupations enumerated, which together embrace 6½ million workpeople, the rate was 6.2. These figures barely hint at the enormous number of non-fatal accidents. In coal mines alone the number of persons disabled for more than seven days was 159,042, or, roughly, one in every seven men employed.

SECTION X.—VITAL STATISTICS.

Preliminary Results of the Census for 1911.

The twelfth Census of the population of England and Wales, which was taken on April 3rd, 1911, put the population of the United Kingdom at 45,216,665 persons, an increase of 3,757,944 in the 10 years since the last Census. The increase was unevenly divided between the component parts of the Kingdom.

| United Kingdom. | Incr. or Decr. 1901-1911. | Percentage of Increase. |
|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| England | 3,235,766 | 10·5 |
| Wales | 311,660 | 18·1 |
| Scotland | 287,342 | 6·4 |
| Ireland | — 76,824 | — 1·7 |

Since the Census of 1821 England has trebled her population, Wales increased even more rapidly in proportion, and Scotland had more than doubled her numbers. Ireland has shown a steady decrease from 6½ mil-

lion souls in 1821 to 4½ million in 1891. In the last few years the decline has been arrested, but the decennium 1901-11 still shows a decrease.

Forty-seven counties in England and Wales showed increases varying from 42 to less than 1 per cent.; the administrative county of London, Cumberland and Westmorland, and five Welsh counties showed small decreases. Among the great industrial districts, Glamorgan alone shows a greater increase during the past decennium than in former years. Staffordshire, Lancashire, and the West Riding, though they have enlarged their population, have not advanced so rapidly as in 1891-1901. In some predominantly agricultural areas, such as Lincolnshire, Buckinghamshire Dorsetshire, and Oxfordshire, the population shows greater increases than in former decennial periods.

*POPULATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. SUCCESSIVE CENSUSES.

| — | 1821. | 1851. | 1871. | 1881. | 1891. | 1901. | 1911. |
|--------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| U. Kingdom— | | | | | | | |
| Persons | 20,893,584 | 27,390,629 | 31,484,661 | 34,884,848 | 37,732,922 | 41,458,721 | 45,216,665 |
| Males | 10,174,868 | 13,369,227 | 15,301,830 | 16,972,654 | 18,314,571 | 20,102,408 | 21,942,883 |
| Females | 10,718,716 | 14,021,402 | 16,182,831 | 17,912,194 | 19,418,351 | 21,356,313 | 23,273,782 |
| England— | | | | | | | |
| Persons | 11,281,957 | 16,921,972 | 21,495,219 | 24,614,001 | 27,483,551 | 30,807,310 | 34,043,076 |
| Males | 5,498,838 | 8,281,785 | 10,454,382 | 11,961,877 | 13,291,431 | 14,867,541 | 16,420,494 |
| Females | 5,783,119 | 8,640,187 | 11,040,837 | 12,652,124 | 14,192,120 | 15,939,769 | 17,622,582 |
| Wales— | | | | | | | |
| Persons | 718,279 | 1,005,637 | 1,217,047 | 1,360,438 | 1,518,974 | 1,720,533 | 2,032,193 |
| Males | 351,481 | 499,440 | 604,552 | 678,025 | 761,470 | 861,072 | 1,027,982 |
| Females | 366,798 | 506,197 | 612,495 | 682,413 | 757,504 | 859,461 | 1,004,211 |
| Scotland— | | | | | | | |
| Persons | 2,091,521 | 2,888,742 | 3,360,018 | 3,735,573 | 4,025,647 | 4,472,103 | 4,759,445 |
| Males | 982,623 | 1,375,479 | 1,603,143 | 1,799,475 | 1,942,717 | 2,173,755 | 2,307,603 |
| Females | 1,108,898 | 1,513,263 | 1,756,875 | 1,936,098 | 2,082,930 | 2,298,348 | 2,451,842 |
| Ireland— | | | | | | | |
| Persons | 6,801,827 | 6,574,278 | 5,412,377 | 5,174,836 | 4,704,750 | 4,458,775 | 4,381,951 |
| Males | 3,341,926 | 3,212,523 | 2,639,753 | 2,533,277 | 2,318,953 | 2,200,040 | 2,186,804 |
| Females | 3,459,901 | 3,361,755 | 2,772,624 | 2,641,559 | 2,385,797 | 2,258,735 | 2,195,147 |

* The figures for 1821 exclude the Army and Navy and the Merchant Service at Home.

Improvement in Rural Figures.

One satisfactory feature of the Census Returns is the evidence afforded that the tide of emigration from country to town is turning. It is true that urban populations increased by 11·1 per cent. and the inhabitants of rural districts by only 10·2 per cent., but a study of the fluctuation of the rural population in representative rural districts over a number of decades shows that this increase is relatively a great improvement, since it succeeds half a century of decrease or stagnation in the British countryside.

The figures of 105 purely rural districts given below show clear evidence that the Back-to-the-Land Movement is achieving solid results, although the percentage of urban population to the total continues to show a slight increase, being 78·1 in 1911 against 77·0 in 1901. The largest percentage of increase for the urban areas is not in the great cities, but in boroughs and

urban districts containing from 30,000 to 40,000 inhabitants. The population of the great cities shows an increasing tendency to shift from central to outer districts.

POPULATION OF 105 REGISTRATION DISTRICTS CONTAINING NO PORTION OF AN URBAN DISTRICT.

| Census Year. | Population. | Increase (+) or Decrease (—) per cent. in intercensal period. |
|--------------|-------------|---|
| 1801 | 852,313 | — |
| 1811 | 913,713 | + 7·2 |
| 1821 | 1,044,331 | + 14·3 |
| 1831 | 1,115,641 | + 6·8 |
| 1841 | 1,181,758 | + 5·9 |
| 1851 | 1,212,548 | + 2·6 |
| 1861 | 1,207,580 | — 0·4 |
| 1871 | 1,202,499 | — 0·4 |
| 1881 | 1,187,124 | — 1·2 |
| 1891 | 1,174,958 | — 1·0 |
| 1901 | 1,189,713 | + 1·2 |
| 1911 | 1,306,565 | + 9·8 |

Large Increases in Urban Districts.

The area and population of the County Boroughs, as stated in the Census, are given on pages 172-175 of this book, with other statistics relating to them. Of the County Boroughs, the City of Manchester alone shows an increase of over 50,000 inhabitants since the last Census, the figures being 714,427 against 644,873 in 1901. Other towns showing large accessions were:—

| INCREASES IN POPULATION 1901-11. | | | |
|----------------------------------|--------|-----------------|--------|
| Birkenhead .. | 19,917 | Liverpool ... | 43,432 |
| Bournemouth .. | 18,915 | Newcastle ... | 19,643 |
| Bristol | 18,017 | Newport (Mon.) | 16,430 |
| Cardiff | 17,947 | Nottingham .. | 20,199 |
| Coventry | 36,399 | Portsmouth ... | 42,237 |
| Croydon | 35,664 | Sheffield | 45,583 |
| Hull | 37,765 | Stoke-on-Trent | 19,841 |
| Leeds | 16,600 | Swansea | 20,136 |
| Leicester | 15,663 | West Ham .. | 21,744 |

Statistics of Greater London.

Greater London has increased her population by 671,551, the outer ring showing a heavy increase at the expense of Inner London. The City of London Police District contains 19,657 inhabitants against 26,923 in 1901, and even the Administrative County, which practically doubled its population between 1851 and 1901, shows a small actual decline. But the 60 Middlesex parishes which are included in Greater London increased their inhabitants from 792,476 in 1901 to 1,126,694 in 1911.

The great Municipal Boroughs and Urban Districts near London showed large increases:—

| District. | Pop. | Increase |
|-----------------------|---------|----------|
| East Ham, M.B. | 133,504 | + 37,496 |
| Ilford, U.D. | 78,205 | + 36,961 |
| Leyton, U.D. | 124,736 | + 25,824 |
| Southend-on-Sea, M.B. | 62,723 | + 33,866 |
| Walthamstow, U.D. .. | 124,597 | + 29,466 |
| Acton, U.D. | 57,523 | + 19,779 |
| Ealing, M.B. | 61,235 | + 28,204 |
| Edmonton, U.D. | 64,820 | + 17,921 |
| Enfield, U.D. | 56,344 | + 13,606 |
| Finchley, U.D. | 39,425 | + 17,299 |
| Hendon, U.D. | 38,806 | + 16,356 |
| Southgate, U.D. | 33,613 | + 18,620 |
| Tottenham, U.D. | 137,457 | + 34,754 |
| Willesden, U.D. | 154,267 | + 39,456 |
| Wood Green, U.D. | 49,372 | + 15,139 |

METROPOLITAN AND CITY OF LONDON POLICE DISTRICTS.—AREA; FAMILIES OR SEPARATE OCCUPIERS, 1911; AND POPULATION, 1901 AND 1911.

| | Area in Statute Acres (Land and Inland Water). | Families or Separate Occupiers, 1911. | Population. | |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|-------------|-----------|
| | | | 1901. | 1911. |
| Metropolitan and City of London Police Districts | 443,424 | 1,634,190 | 6,581,402 | 7,252,963 |
| Metropolitan Police District | 442,752 | 1,630,177 | 6,554,479 | 7,233,306 |
| City of London Police District | 672 | 4,013 | 26,923 | 19,657 |
| The Metropolitan Police District consists of:— | | | | |
| Administrative County of London (exclusive of the City of London) | 74,144 | 1,032,133 | 4,509,344 | 4,503,304 |
| Administrative County of Middlesex (60 parishes) | 148,701 | 249,633 | 792,476 | 1,126,694 |
| Administrative County of Surrey—part of— (38 parishes) | 71,087 | 77,195 | 250,748 | 356,748 |
| County Borough of Croydon | 9,012 | 38,569 | 133,895 | 169,559 |
| Administrative County of Kent—part of— (18 parishes) | 43,281 | 37,540 | 151,066 | 172,340 |
| Administrative County of Essex—part of— (14 parishes) | 55,753 | 121,087 | 404,856 | 560,650 |
| County Borough of West Ham | 4,683 | 61,960 | 267,358 | 289,102 |
| Administrative County of Hertford—part of— (16 parishes) | 36,091 | 12,060 | 44,736 | 54,909 |

The Annual Summary of the Registrar-General shows that the death-rate in the County of London in 1910 was 12·71 per 1,000, a decrease on the average of 1905-9, when the figure stood at 14·53, the actual number of deaths being 61,756. Deaths from smallpox, measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, whooping cough, enteric, diarrhoea, and other preventable disease were 8,796 fewer than in 1910 than the average of the five preceding years. That is to say, these lives were practically saved by the increasing efficiency of the health authorities. Infant mortality fell to 103 per thousand births, the lowest rate recorded, a good result not likely to be maintained in 1911, owing

to the excessive heat of the summer months.

Of the 64,861 deaths registered during the year 1910 in London and in Metropolitan institutions situated outside the county, 28,123, or 43·4 per cent., took place either in workhouses, in hospitals, or in public lunatic asylums. The percentages in the several classes of institutions were as follows:—22·4 per cent. in workhouses and workhouse infirmaries.

1·2 per cent. in Metro. Asylums Board Hospitals.

16·1 per cent. in other hospitals.

3·7 per cent. in public lunatic and imbecile asylums.

The birth-rate fell to 23·6 from the average of 25·7 for the years 1905-9.

THE ENGLISH COUNTIES.

The figures for the Administrative Counties are as follows:—

| Administrative Counties | Area in Statute Acres (Land and Inland Water). | Population. 1911. | Increase or Decrease of Population in Intercensal Period. | Administrative Counties. | Area in Statute Acres (Land and Inland Water). | Population. 1911. | Increase or Decrease of Population in Intercensal Period. |
|---------------------------------------|--|-------------------|---|--------------------------|--|-------------------|---|
| England and Wales .. | 37,337,630 | 36,075,269 | 3,547,426 | Soke of Peterboro. | 53,464 | 44,722 | 3,600 |
| 62 Adminis- trative Counties .. | 36,820,323 | 25,204,009 | 2,660,014 | Northumb. | 1,273,691 | 371,521 | 60,791 |
| ENGLAND. | | | | Nottingham | 529,188 | 344,135 | 69,419 |
| Bedford.... | 302,942 | 194,625 | 22,918 | Oxfordshire | 475,968 | 146,228 | 9,104 |
| Berkshire .. | 456,491 | 195,814 | 15,460 | Rutland .. | 97,273 | 20,347 | 638 |
| Buckingham | 479,360 | 219,583 | 22,537 | Shropshire | 861,800 | 246,396 | 6,523 |
| Cambridge | 315,168 | 128,325 | 8,061 | Somerset .. | 1,034,259 | 407,345 | 22,234 |
| Isle of Ely .. | 238,073 | 69,759 | 5,264 | Southampt. | 942,501 | 433,604 | 69,954 |
| Cheshire .. | 644,172 | 676,356 | 82,471 | Isle of W. | 94,145 | 88,193 | 5,775 |
| Cornwall .. | 868,167 | 328,131 | 5,797 | Stafford .. | 710,844 | 739,105 | 67,615 |
| Cumberland | 973,086 | 265,780 | 1,153 | Suff.—East | 549,241 | 203,227 | 14,057 |
| Derbyshire | 645,097 | 560,129 | 75,283 | Suff.—West | 390,916 | 116,914 | 639 |
| Devonshire | 1,662,672 | 457,343 | 20,405 | Surrey .. | 452,817 | 675,985 | 156,219 |
| Dorsetshire | 625,612 | 223,274 | 21,211 | Sussex—E. | 517,067 | 242,163 | 23,754 |
| Durham .. | 637,672 | 929,340 | 161,316 | Sussex—W. | 401,839 | 176,323 | 25,047 |
| Essex..... | 974,849 | 1,062,000 | 215,360 | Warwick .. | 563,117 | 408,291 | 60,569 |
| Gloucester | 786,020 | 329,037 | 7,565 | Westland .. | 505,330 | 63,575 | 834 |
| Hereford .. | 538,924 | 114,269 | 144 | Wiltshire .. | 864,101 | 236,876 | 15,482 |
| Hertford .. | 404,523 | 311,321 | 52,898 | Worcester | 472,487 | 427,064 | 69,662 |
| Huntingdon | 233,985 | 55,583 | 1,458 | Yorkshire— | | | |
| Kent | 971,991 | 1,021,033 | 81,793 | E. Riding | 741,172 | 154,780 | 10,032 |
| Lancashire | 1,066,529 | 1,739,524 | 161,379 | N. Riding | 1,359,693 | 314,814 | 28,778 |
| Leicester .. | 524,197 | 249,361 | 23,450 | W. Riding | 1,673,550 | 1,585,135 | 195,959 |
| Lincoln .. | | | | WALES. | | | |
| Holland .. | 268,992 | 82,860 | 5,250 | Anglesey .. | 176,630 | 50,943 | 337 |
| Kesteven .. | 465,878 | 111,332 | 7,370 | Brecknock .. | 469,281 | 59,298 | 5,085 |
| Lindsey .. | 963,800 | 237,864 | 31,336 | Cardigan .. | 443,189 | 59,877 | 1,201 |
| London .. | 74,816 | 4,522,961 | 13,306 | Carmarthen | 588,472 | 160,430 | 25,102 |
| Middlesex | 148,701 | 1,126,694 | 334,218 | Carnarvon .. | 365,986 | 125,049 | 600 |
| Monmouth .. | 345,048 | 312,078 | 81,272 | Denbighshire | 426,084 | 144,796 | 13,214 |
| Norfolk .. | 1,303,570 | 321,748 | 10,433 | Flintshire .. | 163,025 | 93,720 | 11,235 |
| Northants | 581,679 | 213,754 | 6,269 | Glamorgan .. | 489,529 | 743,110 | 211,277 |
| | | | | Merioneth .. | 422,372 | 45,573 | 3,279 |
| | | | | Montgomery | 510,110 | 53,147 | 1,764 |
| | | | | Pembroke .. | 393,003 | 89,956 | 2,062 |
| | | | | Radnorshire | 301,165 | 22,589 | 692 |

For the Scottish and Irish Counties see page 300.

TIME STANDARDS OF VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

An important step towards remedying the confusion occasioned by the differences in local time was made in March, 1911, when Greenwich time was legalised in France. Portugal is adopting Greenwich time from January 1st, 1912. The principal time standards in use in European countries besides Greenwich (West European) time, are: Amsterdam time which is 20 minutes in advance of Greenwich time; Mid-Europe time 1 hour; Athens time 1 hour 35 mins; East Europe time 2 hours; St. Petersburg time 2 hours 1 min.

In France, Belgium, Spain, and Portugal, the railway services are arranged according to West Europe (Greenwich) time; in Holland according to Amsterdam time; in Germany, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, Italy, Serbia, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and Western Turkey, according to Mid-Europe time; in Bulgaria, Roumania, and Eastern Turkey according to East Europe time, which is one hour earlier than Mid-Europe time and two hours earlier than West Europe time; in Greece according to Athens time; in Russia the train services

in the guides are according to St. Petersburg time, but the railway authorities usually issue time tables also showing the service by local time, such as Warsaw and Moscow time, &c.; in Austria Mid-European time has been in use on the railways for years but it has not yet been adopted as the legal time of the country.

South African time is 2 hours in advance of ours, Indian time 5 hrs. 30 min., and Chinese 8 hours. America has standards varying from 4 hours (Eastern Coast) to 8 hours (Pacific Coast) behind Greenwich time. The Australian clocks are from 3 to 10 hours in front of ours; while in New Zealand, which is practically the Antipodes, the difference is 11½ hours.

The 24-hour clock, which would have its advantages alike for those who compile and those who use the railway time tables, has hitherto made small headway. But it is in use on the Canadian railways, and has been made legal in Belgium, Italy, and Spain. Midnight instead of being 12-0 p.m. becomes 0 hour.

THE CRUSADE AGAINST CONSUMPTION.

The most hopeful fact about the fight against consumption is that **we are fighting a beaten enemy.** Consumption was called by John Bunyan the "Captain of the Hosts of Death," but every year his victims are fewer, and we may confidently hope that in a comparatively few years we shall see it eradicated. In 1851 the death-rate from consumption was 2,817 per million; in 1909 the death-rate had fallen to 1,081 per million—a decrease of more than 50 per cent. And it is satisfactory to note that the decrease has chiefly occurred amongst the young people. The decrease in the death-rate from consumption amongst persons below 25 years of age is no less than 70 per cent.

But though consumption is not the fatal disease it formerly was, it levies every year a heavy toll of human life. The deaths from consumption in 1909 were 38,639, and were equivalent to 7.5 per cent. of the total death-rate, and the great majority of the deaths take place in the working period of life, between the ages of 25 and 55. Professor Moore estimates that the loss to the country from consumption is not less than sixteen millions sterling.

Consumption is due to the successful invasion of the body by a germ, the **tubercle bacillus**, which is chiefly derived from the expectoration of consumptive patients and from the milk of tuberculous cows. But as a rule the bacilli will not be successful in their invasion unless the patient is predisposed to attack by depressing conditions, such as want of food, insanitary surroundings, overwork, and indulgence in alcohol. For the fight against consumption we need **two kinds of weapons**, first, **those that attack the bacilli**; second, **those that attack the conditions that favour the invasion of the bacilli.**

Since semi-starvation is one of the most important predisposing causes of consumption, it is obvious that one of the best ways to attack the disease is to cheapen food. It is certain that the marked decrease in the death-rate from consumption during the last 50 years is due in considerable measure to the better feeding of the poorer classes, due to cheap food, and for this reason, if for no others, public health reformers must steadily resist any measures that will raise the price of the people's food. Improved sanitation, better housing, diminished dampness due to drainage improvements, open spaces, factory legislation, increased temperance, diminished overcrowding—all these have played their part in reducing the prevalence of consumption, and there must be no relaxation of effort on these lines. Housing is particularly important. Much may be hoped from slum clearances on the one hand, and on the other from the establishment of garden suburbs, where the workers may live in healthy and pleasant homes and surroundings.

But measures must also be brought to bear upon the consumptive patient himself, for a careless patient may pollute his surroundings with millions of germs, and become a source of danger to his fellows. All consumptives should be carefully trained in the observance of cleanly habits. This is work for the health authorities, but before the authorities can carry it out they must know where the consumptives are, and therefore the notification of consumption is necessary. Notification is now compulsory for Poor Law and for hospital patients, and compulsory notification should be made universal.

The Control of Tuberculosis.

A rapidly increasing number of health authorities are providing **sanatorium treatment** for notified patients, the object being not so much to effect a cure as to train the patient in habits of the most scrupulous cleanliness. Accommodation is being provided also for the most infectious cases, namely, those in the advanced stages of the disease. Many of these patients now die in workhouses as paupers, but the whole treatment of consumption—which is an infectious disease—should be removed from the Poor Law and placed in the hands of the public health authorities.

Another important preventive measure is the **Anti-tuberculosis Dispensary**. This institution undertakes by its medical officers and nurses the education and supervision of the patient in his own home. It preaches the gospel of the open window, provides open-air shelters in which the patient can undergo the open-air cure in his own back-yard, selects case for sanatorium treatment, and most important of all, medically examines the other members of the patient's family, and very often discovers unsuspected cases

in the early stage of the disease, when cure is not only possible, but, if the right measure are taken, probable.

Some dispensaries employ **Tuberculin**. This powerful remedy, which was discovered and prematurely announced by Koch over 20 years ago, is now being used, with the modern methods of administration elaborated by the discoverer, with considerable success. This year the Portsmouth Corporation established a tuberculin dispensary, which has already been fruitful in results, and similar institutions are being started in Sheffield and several other towns.

Medical inspection has revealed the fact that no less than 60,000 children attending school are suffering from tuberculosis. **Consumptive children should be taught in special schools**, under open-air conditions and careful medical supervision, with plenty of rest, including two hours' sleep in the afternoon, and three good meals a day. No education authority can be considered to have fulfilled its duty unless it has made provision for the education of its consumptive children.

THE MENACE OF CANCER.

One of the most remarkable and, at first sight, certainly the most alarming feature of the vital statistics of this country during the last half-century is the great increase recorded in the mortality from cancer. In 1860 the death-rate from cancer per million was 370; it has since more than doubled, for the rate in 1909 was no less than 952. Forty years ago cancer ranked ninth amongst the causes of death in the Registrar-General's tables; now it takes the fifth place, being exceeded only by tuberculosis, heart disease, pneumonia, and bronchitis. The increase has been much greater amongst males than females, although the mortality has always been higher in females than males. From 1860 to 1909, the death-rate from cancer amongst males has risen from 217 to 26 per million, while amongst females the increase during the same period has been from 480 to 1,071. In 1909 the deaths from cancer numbered 4,053, and formed 6·57 per cent. of the total deaths from all causes, and there

is no reason to doubt that this mortality will be considerably exceeded in the future. An increased recorded mortality from cancer is not, however, peculiar to this country; a similar increase has occurred in all countries from which statistics are forthcoming, but at the present time the death-rate from cancer in England and Wales is exceeded only in Scotland and Switzerland. The death rates per thousand in 1908 for the chief European countries:—

| Countries. | Death-rate | Countries. | Death-rate |
|----------------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| Switzerland | 1·11 | Austria | 0·72 |
| Scotland | 0·94 | Ireland | 0·62 |
| England & Wales 0·92 | | Belgium | 0·51 |
| The Netherlands 0·90 | | Italy | 0·53 |
| Prussia | 0·73 | Spain | 0·44 |

Cancer is a disease of later life. Before the age of 35 it is uncommon, but afterwards the liability to cancer steadily increases in both sexes. The following table shows the death-rate per million in England and Wales at different age-periods in males and females in the years 1901-09:—

Ages at Death.

| Death-rate per Million Living. | | Ages at Death. | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|----------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | 0—35 | 35— | 45— | 55— | 65— | 75— | 85— |
| | Males . . . | 47·3 | 425·6 | 1591·3 | 3996·3 | 6977·1 | 7833·6 | 7635·2 |
| | Females .. | 50·2 | 879·7 | 2415·4 | 4491·6 | 7022·6 | 8091·5 | 8128·4 |

Cancer causes 10 per cent. of the deaths occurring in males above the age of 45, and nearly 13 per cent. of those in females above that age; that is to say, that of every 10 men and of every seven women who reach the age of 45 one will ultimately die of cancer. Only those who have seen a patient in the later stages of cancer can realise the tragic meaning of these figures.

There are reasons for thinking that the increase in the cancer death-rate is largely due, not to an increased prevalence of the disease, but to more careful and accurate certification of the cause of death. No doubt many of the deaths that are now certified as due to cancer would formerly have been attributed to such indefinite causes as "tumour," "abdominal disease," or "old age." As medical science advances and medical education improves, cancer is more readily diagnosed and the cause of death more accurately determined. It has been found that in a well-known insurance office, whose policy-holders are well-to-do and able to command skilled medical attendance, the increase in cancer mortality has been much less than it has been in the whole country. Also, the chief increase has occurred in cancer of the inaccessible organs, where diagnosis is a matter of considerable difficulty.

What the statistics probably indicate is not so much an increased prevalence of cancer as an increased ability to recognise it, and as death certification is still far from perfect—many deaths being still ascribed to "old age," which is not a cause of death at all—we must expect a further increase in the cancer death-rate due to improved diagnostic

ability. In spite of these considerations, however, it seems probable that to some extent cancer is more prevalent than formerly. Fatal cancer of the tongue offers no difficulty in diagnosis, and yet the death-rate from this form of the disease has markedly increased.

The cause of cancer is unknown, although long-continued irritation, such as the scratching of a decayed tooth on the tongue, predisposes to the disease. Some dozen years ago it was thought to be due to a parasite, but this view is now discredited. The disease is very wide-spread, occurring in all races of men, and in all the vertebrata that have yet been studied. Although some cases of spontaneous cure have been recorded, cancer nearly always progresses rapidly to a fatal termination, unless it is recognised in an early stage, when cure is possible, and in the vast majority of instances the only cure is extirpation of the whole of the diseased tissue.

Prevention is better than cure, but prevention is impossible while the cause of the disease is unknown. The discovery of the cause of cancer would be one of the greatest events in the history of the human race. Fortunately the cancer problem is now being attacked all over the world by enthusiastic workers, prominent amongst whom are the investigators of the Imperial Cancer Research Fund in London, whose reports have done much to clear away many misconceptions that formerly impeded progress, and to point the way to success.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN 1910.

Outstanding features of the 1910 returns are a slight increase in marriages and a decrease in births and deaths, which reached the lowest rates on record last year.

In England and Wales the *marriages* in 1910 numbered 267,000, corresponding to a rate of 14·8 persons married per 1,000 of the population of all ages. This rate was 0·2 per 1,000 above the corresponding rate of 1909, but 0·7 below the average rate in the decade 1900-1909.

Births registered in 1910 numbered 897,000, a proportion of 24·8 per 1,000 of the population of all ages. This was 0·8 per 1,000 below the rate in 1909, which was the lowest rate reached till then. Compared with the preceding decade, the birth-rate in 1910 showed a decline of no less than 2·7 per 1,000.

In 1910 the *deaths* registered were 483,000, equal to 13·4 per 1,000 of the population. This was 1·1 per 1,000 below the rate of 1909, the lowest hitherto recorded. Carmarthen had the highest death-rate (17·5 per 1,000) and Middlesex the lowest (10·2 per 1,000).

A satisfactory feature is the further and substantial decline recorded in the rate of *infant mortality*. The proportion of deaths under one year of age to registered births was 103 per 1,000 in 1910, or 3 per 1,000 less than 1909, the lowest recorded up to that year. Compared with the average in the decade 1900-1909, the rate of infant mortality last year showed a decrease of 26 per 1,000 births. The excellent record of 1910 was not kept up in the hot summer of 1911, for which, however, the full figures of infant mortality are not yet available.

The following table shows, in summary form, the crude birth-rates and the crude and corrected death-rates during 1910, in England and Wales as a whole and in several groups of areas:—

BIRTH-RATE, DEATH-RATE, AND ANALYSIS OF MORTALITY DURING THE YEAR 1910.

| | ANNUAL RATE PER 1,000 LIVING. | | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|------------|------------------|---|-------------------------------|
| | Birth-rate. | Death-rate | | | Principal Epidemic Diseases,† |
| | | Crude. | Cor- rected.* | Deaths under one year to 1,000 Births. | |
| Cols. | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. |
| England & Wales | 24·8 | 13·4 | 13·4 | 0·99 | 106 |
| 77 Great Towns | 24·9 | 13·4 | 14·3 | 1·23 | 115 |
| 136 Smaller Towns | 23·7 | 12·4 | 12·9 | 0·88 | 104 |
| England & Wales less the 213 Towns | 25·1 | 13·6 | 12·8 | 0·74 | 95 |

* The Corrected Death-rates represent the Crude Death-rates in Col. 2 multiplied by the respective Factors for Correction for differences of sex and age constitution of population. For construction and use of these Factors, see Annual Summary 1908, pp. x-xiii. Owing to the difficulty of distributing to their proper areas deaths occurring in public institutions it is probable that the death-rate of the rural area is somewhat overstated, and those of the great and smaller towns slightly understated.

† Smallpox, measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, whooping cough, enteric, and diarrhoea.

Violent Deaths.—During the year 1910 the deaths in England and Wales referred to different forms of violence, either accidental or otherwise, numbered 18,807, being in the proportion of 0·52 per 1,000 of the population, or 0·06 per 1,000 below the mean proportion in the 10 preceding years.

Deaths in Public Institutions.—No fewer than 98,959, or 20·5 per cent., of the deaths registered occurred in workhouses and workhouse infirmaries, in hospitals and convalescent homes, or in public lunatic asylums. The mean proportion of such deaths during the 10 preceding years was 17·3.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN LONDON AND IN CERTAIN COLONIAL AND FOREIGN CITIES, 1910.

Note.—The figures for most of these cities are provisional and in some cases relate to a period of 52 weeks.

| CITIES. | POPULATION (estimated ^a). | ANNUAL RATE per 1,000 Persons living. | | Infantile Mortality per 1,000 Births. |
|----------------|--|---|---------|--|
| | | Births. | Deaths. | |
| London | 4,872,702 | 23·6 | 12·7 | 103 |
| Calcutta | 1,031,206 | 16·5 | 23·0 | 274 |
| Bombay* | 977,822 | 20·4 | 35·7 | 414 |
| Madras | 568,146 | 34·0 | 35·7 | 294 |
| Sydney | 613,500 | 26·4 | 10·4 | 82 |
| Melbourne | 568,810 | 23·5 | 12·7 | 92 |
| Brisbane | 143,077 | 26·4 | 11·1 | 83 |
| Montreal | — | — | — | — |
| Toronto | — | — | — | — |
| Paris* | 2,722,731 | 18·0 | 16·7 | 118 |
| Brussels | 720,030 | 16·8 | 13·6 | 136 |
| Antwerp | 327,668 | 19·7 | 12·8 | 150 |
| Amsterdam | 570,057 | 23·6 | 12·2 | 78 |
| Rotterdam | 422,132 | 29·6 | 12·2 | 94 |
| The Hague | 274,236 | 25·4 | 12·5 | 93 |
| Copenhagen | 469,000 | 26·1 | 14·2 | 118 |
| Stockholm | 342,908 | 23·2 | 14·6 | 92 |
| Christiania | 240,178 | 23·5 | 11·9 | 83 |
| St. Petersburg | 1,577,892 | 27·8 | 24·1 | 262 |
| Moscow | 1,493,600 | 35·9 | 26·9 | 297 |
| Berlin | 2,053,049 | 21·5 | 14·7 | 157 |
| Hamburg | 917,750 | 23·2 | 14·2 | 149 |
| Dresden | 542,500 | 21·6 | 13·8 | 129 |
| Breslau | 506,175 | 27·5 | 19·1 | 188 |
| Munich | 590,000 | 23·4 | 15·0 | 166 |
| Vienna | 2,107,981 | 19·9 | 15·8 | 176 |
| Prague | 497,905 | 19·2 | 18·4 | 164 |
| Budapest | 833,703 | 26·5 | 19·3 | 148 |
| Trieste | 223,027 | 32·9 | 22·9 | 190 |
| Rome | 590,113 | 23·6 | 18·5 | 123 |
| Milan | 611,184 | 23·3 | 17·1 | 113 |
| Turin | 391,968 | 17·3 | 14·9 | 137 |
| Venice | 183,224 | 23·1 | 19·0 | 158 |
| Bucarest | 297,643 | 30·7 | 25·6 | 200 |
| Cairo:— | | | | |
| Egyptians | 620,443 | 50·5 | 39·7 | 292 |
| Foreigners | 62,910 | — | 12·4 | — |
| Alexandria:— | | | | |
| Egyptians | 319,087 | 45·6 | 36·7 | 278 |
| Foreigners | 68,829 | — | 14·0 | — |
| New York | 4,803,264 | 26·9 | 16·0 | 126 |
| Chicago | 2,185,283 | — | 15·1 | — |
| Philadelphia | — | — | — | — |
| Boston | — | — | — | — |
| Baltimore | — | — | — | — |
| New Orleans | 375,000 | — | 19·4 | — |
| Rio de Janeiro | 870,475 | 27·8 | 20·6 | 166 |
| Buenos Ayres | 1,270,234 | 35·4 | 16·5 | 97 |

* The populations of Bombay and Paris given above are those enumerated in 1906.

OUR MILK SUPPLY.

By CHAS. E. HECHT, National Food Reform Association.

In recent times two hopeful campaigns have been inaugurated for the extinction of tuberculosis and the reduction of infant mortality. To the success of each, little short of a revolution in the conditions of the milk supply is an indispensable preliminary. How much room there is for improvement the following brief statement will show. "The milk trade," declared Mr. Brittlebank, veterinary surgeon in the Manchester Public Health Department, "is in a filthy condition." This statement, made 10 years ago, is largely true to-day. "A fluid almost as vital to life as water," says Dr. Cautley, "is produced under dirty surroundings, conveyed under bad conditions, subjected to varying degrees of unduly high temperature and contamination at the farm, in transit from the farm to the milk dealer, in the milk shops, during delivery, and in the house of the consumer." Further, milk produced under such conditions is in itself, particularly in warm weather, a source of grave danger, and its nutritive value is diminished. It is also estimated, on the basis of a Local Government Board return, that we pay about £240,000 annually to adulterators, while a Departmental Committee (1901) showed that 18·2 per cent. of the milk, 77·9 per cent. of the cream, and 57·1 per cent. of the butter samples had been doctored with boric acid, formalin, &c. The consequences of this disgraceful state of things are writ large in our mortality statistics. "To it we owe," says Dr. Niven, "a large share of the immense death toll from wasting diseases, from tuberculous disease of the bowel, and from summer diarrhoea. It is probable, too, that a large proportion of the deaths in children, assigned to other causes, is caused, in the main, by malnutrition, in the production of which contaminated milk has had no insignificant share." The use of an infected milk supply has likewise frequently led to outbreaks of typhoid, scarlet fever, and diphtheria. Scarcely less serious evils are the absence of co-operation and defective distribution. The

Inter-Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration, which was impressed with the enormous sacrifice of infant life due to insufficient or improper feeding, recommended that the milk supply should pass through as few hands as possible, and that milk vendors should not be general dealers. Accordingly, milk depôts should be formed in each town, obtaining their supply direct from the farms. The fact that cities like Manchester have felt compelled to seek special Parliamentary powers, and the president of the Local Government Board has in two successive sessions (1909 and 1910) introduced a Milk and Dairies Bill, afford ample evidence that the question is one that will not brook delay. Municipalities are growing restive, producers and retailers desire an end to the present uncertainty and lack of uniformity. Above all, the conclusions of the Royal Commission on Tuberculosis have profoundly stirred the public conscience, and rendered further delay unthinkable. It found that human tuberculosis is in part identical with bovine tuberculosis, that mammals and man can be reciprocally infected, and that a considerable amount of the tuberculosis in childhood is to be ascribed to infection with bacilli of the bovine type transmitted to children in meals consisting largely of the milk of the cow. Its plea for action in the interests of infants and children, whom it found to be especially endangered, can scarcely be disregarded. In his stirring address to the Prevention of Consumption Congress in July, Mr. John Burns said that the Royal Commission had justified the Government in seeking for new legislation as soon as the opportunity occurred. A Milk Bill was essential and urgent. They were determined that before many months the milk and dairy industry should be placed on a clean, sound, and healthy basis. Nevertheless, it is stated that the congested state of public business during the autumn session does not permit the passage of a Bill this year.

C. E. H.

The Food of the People.

The importance of reform in the Englishman's diet is at length so far recognised that a Parliamentary committee has been formed to further National Food Reform. Its efforts are directed towards remedying the faulty dietetic habits of the people, and the prevailing ignorance of cookery and food values. Its members are to urge the fixing of a Government standard for the nutritive value of bread, such as that already existing in the case of milk, and they press for a Bill placing more stringent regulations on the milk supply; the further encouragement for the scientific teaching

of hygiene, cookery, and domestic economy in schools and continuation classes; they desire to make obligatory throughout the country the provision of a proper cooking stove and adequate food storage in every tenement let for the occupation of a family, provision which is already insisted on in tenement houses within the jurisdiction of the London County Council. Other proposals put forward are a State enquiry into the provisioning of public institutions, and State-aided research into the food properties of agricultural products.

Flannelette.

If purchasers of this useful material for underwear all the year round would buy the best English make, which can be obtained from all leading Drapers, they would avoid the risks they undoubtedly run with the inferior qualities of Flannelette.

Horrockses' Flannelettes

(made by the manufacturers of the celebrated Longcloths, Twills, & Sheetings)

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"HORROCKSES" *stamped on selvedge every five yards.*

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SECTION XI.—WOMEN.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE.

The Present Position of the Movement.

BY CHRISTABEL PANKHURST.

The first Woman Suffrage Bill was introduced in 1870, passed its second reading by a majority of 33, and actually got into Committee. It was, however, defeated in Committee at the instance of the Government of the day. In many subsequent years, Woman Suffrage Bills have been introduced, but have always come to nothing, the reason for this being the refusal of the Government of the day to lend the necessary assistance.

Accordingly, when the present Government took office in 1905, the Women's Social and Political Union resolved to place the responsibility for women's voteless condition upon the right shoulders, and approached the Government with the demand that they should introduce and carry a Woman Suffrage Bill. This the Government declined to do, taking refuge in the old excuse that the Cabinet was divided upon the question. Consequently, the W.S.P.U. instituted an anti-Government campaign, conducted by all such methods as are available to those who do not possess the constitutional weapon of the vote.

In 1910 was formed the **Conciliation Committee**, which consists of Members of Parliament drawn from every party in the House of Commons, and has as its chairman Lord Lytton, and its secretary Mr. Brailsford. With a view to securing a peaceful settlement of the Suffrage question, the Conciliation Committee suggested that the Government, instead of themselves initiating legislation on the subject, should give facilities which would enable the House of Commons, if so disposed, to carry a Woman Suffrage Bill introduced by a private member. The Women's Social and Political Union, while not abandoning their contention that the Government themselves are under a duty to grant the vote to women, consented

to try the experiment proposed by the Conciliation Committee. Other Woman Suffrage Societies also gave assent to the scheme. The Conciliation Committee accordingly drafted a Bill which, in deference to objections raised in Liberal quarters, omitted the Lodger, Ownership, and University qualifications, and gave the vote simply to those women who are either Householders or £10 Occupiers. In view of further Liberal criticism, the Bill has since been altered by the abandonment of the £10 Occupation franchise, so that as it now stands, Householders only will obtain the vote. **The number of women affected is estimated to be about one million, and as careful enquiry in Dundee, Carnarvon Burghs, and other places has shown, at least 800,000 of these will be working women.**

In the Sessions of 1910 and of 1911, the Bill passed its Second Reading—in 1910 by a majority of 109, in 1911 by a majority of 167. On both occasions, the Government refused to perform its share of the proposed bargain by granting facilities. The Prime Minister has now, however, promised that in the Session of 1912 the Government will give a day for the Second Reading of the Bill, an "elastic" week for its discussion in Committee, and the further time necessary for its Report Stage and Third Reading. In a subsequent letter, dated August 23rd, the Prime Minister confirmed this promise, and stated explicitly that the facilities in question will be provided, not for any Suffrage Bill which happens to get a Second Reading, but for the Conciliation Bill. He thus nipped in the bud the hope entertained by a certain section in the House of Commons that they might be able to claim these facilities for the purpose of promoting a rival measure of their own.

Widening Amendments to the Conciliation Bill.

In view of the Prime Minister's pledge for facilities, the passage of the Conciliation Bill seems assured. There is, however, one grave danger to be overcome. Sir Edward Grey, who was mainly instrumental in inducing his colleagues to grant the promised facilities, has indicated the nature of the danger in question. It is that amendments may be promoted which will seriously divide the supporters of Woman Suffrage. Among the amendments of this nature is one which would give the vote to the wife of every elector, irrespective of whether she herself

has an electoral qualification or not. This would involve the enfranchisement of six million additional women. That the adoption of such an amendment would wreck the Bill at the Third Reading is the belief of some of the most progressive men in the House of Commons, including Mr. Ellis Griffith, Sir Alfred Mond, Mr. Arthur Ponsonby, Mr. Philip Snowden, and Mr. George Lansbury. They are of opinion that if this proposal should be embodied in the Bill, it would alienate the support of many moderate Liberals and of all the Unionists who at present support

the Bill; at the same time, it would bring little or no additional support from other quarters.

Moreover, a Franchise Bill applying to seven millions could not be carried except by the Government. This is understood to be the opinion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer himself. Nevertheless, he is credited with the intention of widening the Bill without, however, holding out the smallest hope that the Government would adopt and carry the widened Bill in 1912.

From this it follows that the policy of pressing widening amendments would be fatal to women's hope of becoming voters before the next General Elec-

Votes for Women under the Home Rule Bill.

A definite demand has now been made that Irish women shall have votes under the Home Rule Bill. The Irish Women's Franchise League was the first to formulate the demand that the Home Rule Bill shall contain a clause providing that the proposed Irish Parliament be elected on the Local Government Register, which includes women as well as men. It is anticipated that this demand will be acceded to, and, indeed, the Government are already fully committed to this policy, for under the defunct Irish Councils Bill of 1907, women were to have had the vote. The Government's reason for including a provision to this effect in the Irish Councils Bill was, according to Mr. Birrell, that

Irish women are entitled to share in any good work for their country which may be within the reach of Irish men. Very early in the autumn, Lord Haldane said that if Parliaments were to be established for the various parts of the kingdom, it would be impossible to debar women from a share in electing these Parliaments.

The Government have promised safeguards to Ulster Protestants under the Home Rule Bill, and they are, of course, equally bound to provide for Irish women safeguards in the shape of the Parliamentary Vote.

The campaign for votes for Irish women will be continued during the entire career of the Home Rule Bill.

CHRISTABEL PANKHURST.

LAW OF DIVORCE AND SEPARATION.

BY CECIL

CHAPMAN.

The Royal Commission upon the subject of divorce has brought the matter so recently before the public that most people have attempted to understand and form some judgment upon many of the issues which have been raised. For practical purposes these may be resolved into the following:—

Should the right of divorce be extended to the poor as well as to the rich and middle classes?

Should the right of divorce be granted to a woman upon the same terms as to a man?

And if divorce is to be allowed at all, should not the causes for it be increased?

These questions assume that the right to put an end to a contract of marriage which has failed, together with the possibility of forming a new contract with another person, is a privilege granted by law to innocent persons in the public interest, and is not likely to be revoked by future legislation.

It is unfortunate that some of the most virtuous people in the country emphatically deny this assumption, and speak of divorce as if it was an evil in itself and a disgrace to those who avail themselves of it, however innocent they may have been in their own conduct.

It is very important to have a proper

understanding of this matter, and to clear our minds of cant. It is not easy, without considerable thought, to understand why the contract of marriage should differ from all other contracts in this, that however much it is broken by one or both of the parties, and however much it is found to be associated with misery and immorality, still in the interests of religion it must be maintained during the lifetime of the parties. It is obvious that the result of such a principle must often be martyrdom or immorality, or both, for the parties to the contract. The first has no terrors for its advocates, and the second is accepted by them as a necessary and incurable evil.

This curious and regrettable, because despairing, attitude of mind is due to the dogma that marriage is not like an ordinary contract, but is a Sacrament of the Church, and therefore incapable of rescission by law whatever the consequences.

Civil and Religious Marriage

By law, marriage in England is defined as "the voluntary union for life of one man and one woman to the exclusion of all others," and has always been regarded as a civil contract, although distinguished from others by the solemnity of its charac-

ter. But when the Canon law supplanted and gradually eliminated the secular jurisdiction in matrimonial matters, it established the sacramental doctrine, from which it followed that a priest was necessary for the making of a valid marriage, and the Church alone could, for ecclesiastical reasons, annul it or order the parties to be separated.

This dogma was not fully established till the beginning of the thirteenth century, and after the Reformation it gradually disappeared in all Protestant countries. But in England, so strong was the feeling that marriage was a divine institution, owing to the matrimonial jurisdiction of the Church, that sacerdotal nuptials remained as indispensable as ever, and no definite progress was made in the direction of civil marriage until what has been called Cromwell's triumph, "**The Civil Act of 1653.**" By that Act jurisdiction was vested in civil tribunals, and a civil ceremony was required in all cases of valid marriages.

The effect of this Act, which has been the model for legislation in all civilised countries for two centuries and a half, was rendered inoperative in England almost at once by the political changes which occurred, and was not revived for exactly a century.

The necessity for this change of ideas from sacerdotal to civil marriage will be appreciated when it is remembered that for persons who belonged to any religious body other than the Anglican Church there could be no lawful marriage in England without the Anglican ceremony, until in the reign of George IV. exemption was made for Quakers and Jews, and in the reign of William IV. marriages were authorised in registered buildings and before a registrar.

The right of divorce by law, which naturally followed from this change of ideas, was still delayed in England, although generally adopted at the time of, or soon after, the Reformation, in other Protestant countries, including Scotland, but in 1850 a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into the existing condition of widespread immorality, and suggest a remedy.

The Divorce Act of 1857.

As W. H. Bishops says: "Second marriages without divorce, adultery, and illegitimate children were of every-day occurrence, while polygamy was winked at, although a felony in the statute-book." The final result of this Commission was the Divorce Act of 1857.

This Act was supported by Archbishop Sumner and Bishop Tait, who was then Bishop of London, and the Lord Chancellor, Lyndhurst, not only supported it, but pleaded earnestly for an extension of the law to wilful desertion as a cause for divorce, on the ground that "it is likely to contribute to greater propriety of conduct.

because it makes the contract much more dependent on the exertions of the parties themselves."

The Act was by no means satisfactory. It merely brought within reach of the middle class the right to divorce, which in Protestant and Catholic countries alike, in defiance of all theories and dogmas, had always been procurable by rich and powerful persons. It certainly triumphed over and removed from the law the sacramental doctrine of the Anglican party, but it was not strong enough to resist other pernicious ideas about marriage, which are unfortunately embodied in the Church service and form part of the Church teaching. For this reason it has been described as unjust, illogical, and immoral. It sets up a different standard of offences for the two sexes. It inflicts the heavier penalty of separation for the lesser offences, and in refusing to grant divorce except for adultery, it actually encourages immorality. To be logical it should have brought the remedy within reach of all classes, and included as cause for divorce such causes as permanent desertion and insanity.

The distinction made by the Divorce Act between the sexes lies in this, that a man may divorce his wife for adultery, but a woman cannot divorce her husband unless the adultery is accompanied by personal cruelty or by desertion for the space of two years. This is quite peculiar to England of all Protestant countries in the world, and is almost certainly due to the fantastic teaching that human beings were not created male and female, as all other creatures were, but that the woman was created after the man from a portion of his body, to be a relief to his solitude.

It seemed to follow naturally from this conception of things that woman, unlike the female of any other creature, should be considered inferior to the male, and in the marriage contract a woman should be ordered to obey her husband instead of becoming his partner upon equal terms. It is only by regarding a woman as the possession of a man when he has received her in marriage, that it is possible to account for the otherwise inconceivable idea that the moral law should be different for a husband and a wife.

Ecclesiastical View of Marriage.

It is interesting to discover in this, as in so many other matters, the old quarrel between nature and dogmatic religion. Nature suggests the coming together of men and women for the procreation of children as the fulfilment of God's command to all creation "to be fruitful and multiply and replenish the earth." What nature teaches cannot presumably be evil in itself, but dogmatic Christianity is wont to speak of natural desire as connected with sin. "In sin hath my

mother conceived me." For this reason in the Church service marriage is said to have been "ordained for a remedy against sin and to avoid fornication; that such persons as have not the gift of continency might marry and keep themselves undefiled members of Christ's body." This is a degrading conception of marriage, and when marriage was made inviolable as a sacrament, the logical conclusion followed that this remedy for sin, having once been adopted, could not be set aside even if it proved to be not a remedy against, but actually productive of, sin. If instead of resulting in mutual society, help, and comfort, it produced strife and misery, it was to be endured as a martyrdom.

Mr. Holmes has recently pointed out in his remarkable book on "What Is and What Might Be" in education that the most fruitful cause of all our bad education is the belief that man is by nature "born in sin and a child of wrath," and it is probably true that the most fruitful cause of unhappiness in marriage is that it is regarded too frequently as an excuse for the self-indulgence of man as a lord and master instead of a natural means of securing the highest degree of happiness for the wife to the same degree in every respect as for the husband. If it is true that this life should be regarded as a vale of tears, and that human instincts are evil, then natural happiness is not a legitimate object of human quest in marriage or out of it, and salvation may conceivably lie in the maintenance of ecclesiastical institutions whatever the consequences. In other words, human nature may advantageously be repressed and regulated by institutions instead of being trusted with freedom and permitted to develop on its own lines, subject only to the restraints of moral law.

The influence of this doctrine of institutionalism upon our laws and customs is enormous, and much lip service is given to it by professing Christians, but the practice of mankind as a whole has ever repudiated or disregarded it whenever the natural claims of life required such a course to be taken. With the increase of education the tendency has grown to examine all institutions and customs, and apply to them the test of human happiness and national prosperity. It is felt more and more keenly that the Institution of Marriage was made for the benefit of both parties to the contract, and that it is positively wrong that the true interests of either men or women should be sacrificed to the institution. The conviction is widely spread that the dualism created by the conflict of innocent human instincts with religious teaching is a hindrance to human progress, which once realised must be removed.

Marriage ought not to be the enemy of freedom for either the man or the

woman, or a bar to human progress. It ought to assist the growth of individuals instead of hindering them. It ought to promote the happiness and welfare of the whole family, or it fails in its purpose.

It follows from the application of this test, that if the contract of marriage is broken by either of the parties in such a way that there is no hope of reconciliation, then the law should admit of divorce, and either party should be at liberty to marry again. This is disputed by no one except the advocates of the sacramental dogma, but there is considerable hesitation in pushing the principle home to its logical conclusion. It is argued for example that if a wife is allowed to divorce her husband for adultery, or if the poor are allowed to divorce each other for the same reasons as the rich and the middle classes, then the number of divorces will enormously increase, and this will be still more the case if the causes for divorce are extended beyond that of adultery.

Such hesitation shows a complete want of faith in human nature and a cynical disregard of justice or impartiality in dealing with the state. It is founded upon the fallacious idea that divorce is an evil in itself, instead of being an index of intolerable evil and the only means which offers a real chance to innocent persons of an improved condition of things.

Statistics of Divorce and Separation.

The advocates for indissolubility find consolation in the table of comparative statistics because the divorces in England appear as 2.5 per 1,000 marriages whereas those of France are 23.9, and those of Germany are 30. It is pretended that this proves a higher standard of morality in this country, but it is the merest pretence, because the figure does not include separations, which are divorces without the possibility of re-marriage, and, unfortunately, the only kind of divorce brought within reach of the poor. There are on an average 7,000 separations granted every year in the police courts of England and Wales under the **Matrimonial Causes Act**, and if these are added to the divorces the rate for England rises to 27.9, which is considerably above that of France.

Separations are granted for persistent cruelty, for desertion, for neglect to maintain, for aggravated assault, and for habitual inebriety. The necessity for such separations is clear, but there are strong grounds for believing that if divorce was granted for these causes, with proper precautions for delay and full consideration, it would be decidedly in the interests of national morality.

During the last 15 years over 200,000 married persons in England and Wales have been separated by legal process, and about 50,000 persons have separated by private agreement. In Ger-

many and many other Protestant countries, divorce is preferred to separation, because the possibility of re-marriage increases the chance of moral and self-respecting conditions instead of offering to many thousands of the population the alternative of a life of celibacy or immorality. This reasoning will commend itself to most thinking persons, because the effect of separations has been such an increase of concubinage that in certain areas lawful marriage is of small account, and there is something to grieve over in the injustice to women which is involved by this remedy. A separated husband may form a new alliance with impunity, but the woman's maintenance depends entirely upon her remaining chaste; she is often tempted to extremity by the withholding of the allowance, but if she falls, she becomes at once an outcast, with no claim upon her husband and no rights over her children.

If it is thought reasonable to grant divorces for the causes which are now found sufficient for separations, I think few will hesitate to add hopeless insanity and imprisonment for a long term as justifiable causes for divorce.

The Burden of Illegitimacy.

There is one other painful subject connected with this matter which ought not to be overlooked. It is not unreasonable to suppose that the birth of 40,000 bastard children in one year in England is closely connected with our want of wisdom in the separation of parents, and that prostitution is tolerated and maintained by a dual standard of morals. If the injustice which is done to women by our present laws of divorce and separation is a grave blot upon our national character, it is certainly paralleled, if not exceeded, by the barbarous laws which we still retain for dealing with children who are born out of wedlock. In such irregular unions we cast all the shame and most of the burden of supporting the children upon the mothers. We treat the innocent children as if they had been guilty of offence. We compel them to bear their mother's name that her shame may be perpetuated. We proclaim them children of nobody if there is

If we adopt this course, we shall only be putting ourselves in line with other Protestant countries. There is no reason why, with proper precautions, it should involve a danger of lowering the moral standard for married people. There is, on the other hand, considerable hope that the improved status of women and the acknowledgment of their equality with men before the law and in the Constitution will tend to raise the standard of morality in marriage; and the right of divorce being granted on equal terms to husband and wife is, to repeat Lord Lyndhurst's words, "likely to contribute to greater propriety of conduct because it makes the contract more and more dependent on the exertions of the parties themselves."

It must never be overlooked that the right to divorce is a privilege which a man or woman is at liberty to accept or refuse. What the State requires is that justice should be equal, and that every reasonable opportunity to make a fresh start should be offered under moral conditions to those of its citizens, male or female, whose married lives have been wrecked without fault of their own.

any money to be inherited from either parent, and the mother has no right in law to inherit anything from her illegitimate child. There are many other abominable things connected with this subject which cannot be dealt with in this article, but I hope that I have shown enough to prove that when the nation has to make up its mind upon the subject of divorce and separation, it will be well to bear in mind the effect of irregular unions. It will be the duty of our legislators not only to equalise the rights and duties of fathers and mothers, and to enhance, so far as possible, the sanctity of marriage ties, but also to protect from unmerited suffering the lives of illegitimate children.

It is earnestly to be desired that for the proper fulfilment of these tasks the law may be so altered that legislators may have the advantage of consulting the women of the nation as well as the men.

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WOMEN'S UNEMPLOYMENT.

By JEANNETTE TAWNEY.

It is only within the last few years that public attention has been concentrated upon Unemployment and the origins of the problem investigated. As yet, its special bearing upon women has been little considered or discussed. The chief sources of information are three:—

(1) The figures of women registering at the Board of Trade Labour Exchanges; (2) the returns of the various Distress Committees; and (3) the evidence before the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress. The statistical information to be had from the first source is set forth in the following table:—

| 1911 | General Register. | | | Casual Employment Register | |
|--------|-------------------|------------|------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | Months | Applicants | Vacancies filled | No. remaining on live register | Applicants given work |
| May | | 29,622 | 9,791 | 13,043 | 2,440 |
| June | | 35,534 | 14,362 | 14,191 | 2,559 |
| August | | 32,642 | 9,612 | 15,391 | 940 |
| | | | | | 236 |

It must be noted that the third column is not the same as column two subtracted from column one. The reason for this is that there are other agencies at work and that applicants sometimes secure work outside the exchanges.

These figures refer to women only; girls' registration appear under the Juveniles Tables. These latter show a similar search for employment.

From these figures it is evident, first, that there is a search for employment among women on a large scale, as among men; **women and girls are now nearly one-fifth of the total "live register,"** and account for nearly one-quarter of the total placings; and, secondly, that unemployment among women is largely a matter of deficient or misdirected training of women and girls. To give an instance of this, see the Board of Trade returns for the last three months, which show that the demand for women exceeded the supply in the clothing trades and in laundry work.

The Distress Committee returns are now to a large extent merged in the Labour Exchange figures, and are only of value as giving the number of applicants for relief registered at the various Distress Committees.

The characteristics of women's unemployment as distinct from men's are due to women's (a) **lower wages**, (b) **highly seasonal occupations**, (c) **small number of trade unions**, (d) **often young children**. Though these facts

are common property, yet the fact that women are entitled to the same benefits as men under the Unemployed Workman Act of 1905 seems to be generally ignored. London excluded, only one Distress Committee—Liverpool—provides work for women. Glasgow closed its room because of the alleged unsuitability of the applicants. Manchester, which had two rooms, has since made them over to "a select committee of ladies," who publish no report. Birmingham is still in the reporting stage. In all the workrooms provided the nature of the employment has been sewing in some form. Under the Central Unemployed Body, three sewing rooms are carried on at Southwark, Poplar, and St. Pancras, each accommodating about 40 women. Out of a total of 478 suitable applicants, only 345 were given work. In Liverpool, 73 out of 103. There can be no doubt that the method of providing temporary work, though alleviating, does nothing to prevent distress. Why perpetuate in women's relief-work the evils which were recognised and abandoned in dealing with men?

One cannot but hope that the Local Government Board, instead of merely withholding its sanction to the excellent suggestions of the sub-committee of the Central Unemployed Body with regard to training centres, may see fit to insist upon Distress Committees taking action where there is need; and further, that it may prevent their arbitrarily closing down in one particular month without any reference to the actual extent of distress, or to the provision required to meet it. What is needed is that, under public control, centres for systematic training should be opened, where women can be trained in those occupations in which there is a regular shortage of workers, as shown in the Board of Trade Returns. In Manchester a private laundry for training women was opened last year; it has done excellent work, both practically and as an example of what should be done. Why should not the Distress Committee open one on a larger scale?

If in the near future no attempt is made to train the women so that they may be able to obtain work when the period of relief is over, the State is simply creating a system of subsidising wages while conferring no lasting benefits on those relieved.

JEANNETTE TAWNEY.

Industrial Disease.

Accidents are not the sole fatal chance which some industries involve. More subtle and more terrible are, in some trades, happily only a few and a diminishing number, the inroads of industrial disease. During 1910 the number of cases of lead-poisoning in

all, including those occurring amongst house painters and plumbers, was 737, and the number of deaths was 73. Anthrax accounted for nine deaths in 51 cases, and there were also 17 cases of mercurial, phosphorus, or arsenic poisoning.

BEAUTY MASKED.

The excess of fat in the cheeks and chin from which stout people suffer, and which gives a sallow, puffy, flabby appearance, is a veritable mask to beauty of feature and expression in a good many cases, obscuring loveliness and charm. How to get rid of this superfluous and beauty-destroying fat is a very important matter. Those who are unwise enough to poison and impoverish the

blood by drugging and fasting are very far from the right road to the recovery of facial beauty. When such vile methods are persisted in, the subject is in a fair way to lose good looks for ever. The appearance soon becomes haggard and aged, the face wrinkled and sour-looking.

The proper method to adopt is the rejuvenating Antipon treatment—the tonic-strengthening method—whereby the excess fat is expelled from all parts of the body, and beauty of proportion fully restored. The heavy throat and shoulders are relieved of their burden of over-fat, regaining beauty of shape in a surprising way. The tonic action of Antipon on the skin is also of great importance. The pores, being relieved by the removal of the congested fatty matter, act in a healthful, natural way, and the skin is toned, braced up, re-purified, with great advantage to the complexion, which becomes radiantly healthy. This splendid bracing-up process prevents the formation of wrinkles and furrows.

The strengthening effects of Antipon are

due to its grand tonic action on the alimentary system and the enrichment of the blood through the well digested food which the subject is allowed to partake of without stint, and the appetite is so good that wholesome nourishment is always thoroughly enjoyed. And this is no deterrent to the cure of the obesity and the removal of all superabundant fatty tissues, because Anti-

pon has the unique power of entirely suppressing the abnormal tendency to "put on flesh" to excess.

How beauty of form and features are restored, together with the priceless beauty of perfect health, must be obvious to all understanding readers of these lines. There is a reduction of from 8oz. to 3lb. within the first twenty four hours. Ladies who, without being what is rather vulgarly called "fat," or even over-plump, are often in need of something to correct some slight overfullness of line in figure or face, some



Over-fatness is a mask to facial beauty as well as a destroyer of beauty of form.

Antipon will permanently restore perfect proportions of face and figure, and reduce weight to normal.

suspicion of puffiness in cheeks or chin. To them Antipon is of the highest value, the subcutaneous excess being removed quickly and harmlessly. Antipon also acts tonically on the skin, so that the reduction of flesh causes no wrinkling.

Antipon is sold in bottles, price 2s. 6d. and 4s. 6d., by Chemists, Stores, &c., or may be had (on sending remittance), privately packed, carriage paid, direct from the Antipon Company, Olmar Street, London, S.E.

SECTION XII.—CRIME.

THE COURT OF CRIMINAL APPEAL.

Criminal Cases.

The dominant influence in the administration of the criminal law is the activity of the Court of Criminal Appeal.

The Court sat practically every week last year, and it was principally engaged (a) in defining its own powers, (b) in defining the powers of inferior courts, (c) in defining the law, (d) in regularising the procedure in criminal trials, and (e) in standardising sentences. Under each of these headings some important decisions were pronounced.

Ball's case led to the first appeal from the Court of Criminal Appeal to the House of Lords. The Appeal Court gave a judgment which would have annihilated the Incest Act, and the Attorney-General authorised an appeal to the House of Lords, which reversed the judgment. Two questions arose (1) whether pending the appeal to the Lords the accused could be kept under arrest or held on bail; the Court ruled that he must be released. (2) Whether the reversal by the Lords of the Appeal Court's decision meant the restoration

of the original conviction and sentence, or merely laid down a rule of law for guidance in future cases. It was held that reversal carried with it the restoration of the original conviction. For the first time a case was referred by the Home Secretary to the Court of Appeal for consideration, and the Court decided that such cases must be heard exactly as if they were ordinary appeals.

The Court has also decided that where a jury has found a verdict to the effect that a prisoner is insane and unfit to plead, the Criminal Appeal Court cannot review the verdict, because it is not a conviction. It has also decided that it will not allow the defence of insanity to be raised on appeal when the prisoner deliberately refused to raise it at the original trial. On the other hand, it has allowed a conviction to be quashed on a point of law not taken at the original trial. Of minor importance, but not without interest, was a ruling that only one counsel would be heard for the appellant.

Important Rulings on the Prevention of Crime.

Many references to the Court of Criminal Appeal have arisen from recent legislation, such as the Probation of Offenders Act.

The Appeal Court has ruled that every Court of Quarter Sessions has inherent power, quite apart from that Act, to bind a convicted person who is released on his own recognisance to come up for judgment when called upon. They have also ruled that a charge of being an habitual criminal must be tried before sentence is passed on the prisoner for the immediate offence of which he has been convicted. Both these rulings are important: the one because it gives Criminal Courts greater liberty of action in applying preventive and curative methods, the other because it brings home to judges the fact that the primary intention of preventive detention is to give the habitual criminal the opportunity to recover his character.

A growing tendency may be noticed on the part of judges to make a convicted criminal of means pay the costs of the prosecution. The Court of Appeal, however, has refused to add this to a prisoner's sentence, when the prisoner has not appealed against the amount of the sentence. Another ruling which makes for wiser administration is that when a prisoner convicted on one charge is to be tried for another offence committed before

conviction, he ought to be tried at the earliest possible moment, and the trial ought not to be delayed until his sentence has expired. The soundness of this instruction is plain, and it is astonishing that it should have been necessary.

A dictum of the Lord Chief Justice, however, suggests that the blunders in criminal cases are usually those of the Judge. "By far the greater number of successful appeals," he said, "depend upon misdirection and not on the ground that juries have on proper directions returned improper verdicts."

In this connection it is notable that even a Judge of the High Court, Mr. Justice Ridley, needed to be taught by the Appeal Court that a Judge must not express his view of the facts of a case in such a way as to lead the jury to believe that the questions of fact are withdrawn from them.

In the earlier years of its existence the Criminal Appeal Court was obviously determined to give no encouragement to the multiplication of appeals by holding out the hope of the easy quashing of convictions or reduction of sentences. Last year there was some relaxing of this severe attitude. There were numerous cases in which convictions were quashed, and still more cases in which sentences were reduced. The Court tried to give

guidance for the **standardising of sentences** and to lay down rules for the working of the Prevention of Crime Act and the Probation of Offenders Act.

It pointed out to the inferior courts that hard labour cannot be imposed for a common law offence, and it ruled that, generally, a sentence of concurrent penal servitude and hard labour is to be deprecated. On another occasion it decided that a Judge has no right to impose a sentence of three years' penal servitude merely in order to be able to bring the case under the Prevention of Crime Act and add a sentence of preventive detention. A sentence, it held, should depend on the nature of the offence and should

be the same as the Court would impose if there were not going to be any term of preventive detention in addition. On another occasion it reduced a sentence as too severe because the prisoner had committed no serious offence since 1903, and on another occasion it ruled that a period of honest work between the termination of a sentence and a subsequent conviction ought to be taken into account in passing sentence.

It may be said, generally, that all the recent penal experiments are still on their trial, and that neither the Court of Criminal Appeal nor the inferior Courts have clear or systematic views as to how to conduct them.

Some Curious Points of Law.

There were some rather important decisions relating to **gambling**. It was held that a single betting transaction might amount to use of premises if there was other evidence of a betting business being carried on. In another case where a hairdresser's assistant acted without reward as intermediary between a bookmaker and his customers, it was ruled that a person who acts as a mere conduit pipe for making bets between a bookmaker and his customers, though he has no pecuniary interest in the transactions, may be guilty of using the premises where he is employed for the purpose of betting with persons resorting thereto. Still more recently, an inferior court has decided that coupon whist drives are lotteries.

A curious **larceny** point was settled when the Court ruled that for a pick-pocket to lift a purse to the top of a pocket, but not entirely out of it, was sufficient taking out of the proper owner's possession to amount to larceny.

Of more far-reaching character was a decision that the offence of **procuring** is continuous, and that the English Courts have jurisdiction to try it even though the offence was commenced in another country. This greatly strengthens the arm of the law against the white slave traffic.

A perjury appeal gave the Court the occasion to decide that an informal meeting of justices has no authority to administer an oath.

Another decision was to the effect that an exhortation to tell the truth is not an **improper inducement to confess** and would not render a confession inadmissible as evidence.

A decision which may be of importance in the near future was to the effect that on an indictment for **riot** a prisoner may be convicted of assault.

The **Crippen case**, which made so much noise in the world, has left only one trace on the criminal law, a ruling that if in an emergency a juror is separated from the rest of the jury

during a treason or murder trial it is not essential, though advisable, that the bailiff who accompanies him should be sworn, and there will be no mistrial if there is no opportunity of tampering with the juror.

The conduct of certain criminal trials during the year provoked severe criticism of the conduct of the police and the prosecuting counsel. The Court of Appeal has said nothing as to the duties of the prosecuting counsel, though in the *Stinie Morrison* case it ruled that it was the duty of a defending counsel to put the prisoner in the box before all other witnesses for the defence if the prisoner intended to give evidence.

There have been some important and not entirely pleasing rulings as to the duties of the **police**.

It is a common practice for the police after trial and before sentence to give the Court information as to the prisoner's past and reputation. The Court has ruled that this practice is legal and recognised by the Prevention of Crime Act, 1908, even though the information may be hearsay, or not strictly proved. If the prisoner denied the truth of these police statements the Court might enquire into them. Those who have experience of this practice may doubt whether it is not often liable to serious abuse.

Very much more difficult to justify, on public as apart from legal grounds, was a ruling that a police officer who consents to an informer entrapping an offender does not thereby become an accomplice. Such a decision lays the English system open to a development like that of the Russian secret police, in which the *agent provocateur* is a conspicuous agent.

As against these rather disturbing rulings must be set one to the effect that unsupported suggestions by police of other offences ought not to influence sentence, and another that officers of the Court ought not to interject informal information against a prisoner on trial.

IS CRIME INCREASING?

Some remarkably plain speaking on the subject of the increase of crime appears in the introduction to the criminal statistics for the year 1909, the latest yet available. The number of persons tried for indictable offences in the year was 67,149, which, although lower than the figure for 1908, is considerably higher than in any previous year. Remarking on the steady increase of criminality during the last 10 years (see table below), the report declares:—

"It is impossible to avoid the conclusion that during these years some cause favourable to crime has been regularly at work which before then either did not exist at all or did not exercise sufficient influence to affect the figures. Moreover, it can scarcely be doubted that there is a growing indisposition to prosecute for offences of the less serious kind, a growing inclination towards leniency to first offenders, a growing reluctance to take the trouble to prosecute a thief who, if he is convicted, is likely to be let off with little or no punishment; and it is consequently probable that the real increase in crime has been even greater than is shown by the figures relating to the number of persons prosecuted.

"No intelligent person who has studied the subject can have failed to notice the marked growth since 1898 of a strong sentiment of compassion for the criminal. Mitigations of prison discipline, the Probation of Offenders Act, and the establishment of the Borstal system for young delinquents are among the amendments of our penal system which have been the outcome of this sentiment.

"Crime is sometimes spoken of as if it were the outcome of a revolt of the poor against the rich; and the feeling of dissatisfaction with the inequalities of our existing social system at the present time is so deep and so general that anyone professing to take part in such a revolt may count on securing a good deal of public sympathy. The Press does much to encourage this view of crime. Fiction, too, plays its part with fantastic pictures of a Raffles or an Arsène Lupin, and the modern criminal

is too often vested with some of the romance that with more reason belonged to the highwayman of old."

In the report of the Commissioners of Prisons issued later in the year this pessimistic view is vigorously challenged. It is pointed out that in the last 50 years the proportion of persons proceeded against for indictable offences per 100,000 of the population has decreased from 276 to 187. Further, if the considerable volume of serious crime not tried on indictment be included, even in the last decade there has been a considerable reduction. Thus, for 1900 the total number of offences committed was 152,511; for 1909 it was 141,555. It is true that there has been a slight increase of the convict population for 1910-11, but this is accounted for by the increased proportion of convicts against whom previous convictions have been recorded. This proportion has in the last 10 years risen from 78 to 87 per cent.

Generally speaking, there are certain indications which justify a much more hopeful outlook as to the tendency of crime in the future. Firstly, the number of young offenders under 21, convicted on indictment of offences against property, has fallen from 1,457 in 1898-99, to 1,352 in 1910-11, or a decrease of 7 per cent., while the number of prisoners committed to prison on conviction between the ages 16 to 21 has decreased during the last 17 years from 21,585 to 11,543—a decrease of nearly 46 per cent. Secondly, the ages of all persons received into prison on conviction show that the mass of crime is being committed by men who are gradually advancing from one age category to another, and leaving a diminished number to take their place. Ten years ago 32 per cent. of offenders convicted on indictment of offences against property were First Offenders; now that number is only 23 per cent. of the total so convicted. Figures, if they prove anything, would seem to show that the mass of crime is confined to recidivists, and not to the spread of crime in the community generally.

Help for the Discharged Convict.

The appallingly high percentage of convicts who have previously suffered penal servitude or imprisonment—87.75 per cent. in 1910-11—has at last drawn attention to the inadequacy of the arrangements for enabling discharged convicts to make a fresh start. In a somewhat haphazard way many philanthropic societies in the past have done their best to fulfil the important function of after-care. At the same time, the convict has had to submit to the strict and sometimes unsympathetic supervision exercised by the police over a "ticket-of-leave" man.

On April 1st, 1911, a new body was brought into existence, "The Central Association for the Aid of Discharged Convicts"—a combination of all the existing agencies for assisting ex-convicts. A convict now is assigned by

this Council to one or other of the various societies before his period of penal servitude is over. A special study is made of his circumstances, and the way is prepared before he leaves the prison to render his return to honest industry as easy as possible. To the society is entrusted the gratuity which the convict has earned by good conduct in prison, and by them it is administered. So long as he keeps straight all police supervision is suspended, and he is thus freed from anything likely to obtrude his past upon the notice of his neighbours or employers. If, however, he fails to take the chance of rehabilitation thus offered to him, he may be returned to police control under the full strictness of the present arrangements.

CRIMINAL STATISTICS.

CONVICTIONS 1903-1911.

| | 1903-4. | 1904-5. | 1905-6. | 1906-7. | 1907-8. | 1908-9. | 1909-10. | 1910-11. |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|----------|----------|
| Convicted at Assizes and Quarter Sess'ns: | | | | | | | | |
| Offences against the Person | 1,495 | 1,340 | 1,364 | 1,442 | 1,374 | 1,410 | 1,225 | 1,118 |
| Offences against Property | 6,797 | 7,150 | 7,357 | 7,382 | 7,512 | 7,998 | 8,072 | 7,830 |
| Other Offences .. | 348 | 271 | 251 | 192 | 205 | 205 | 203 | 188 |
| Indictable Offences tried summarily .. | 21,730 | 21,784 | 21,890 | 20,272 | 20,886 | 21,710 | 21,381 | 18,758 |
| Other offences tried summarily | 159,518 | 167,396 | 164,194 | 149,105 | 146,625 | 153,578 | 149,080 | 139,801 |
| Totals | 189,888 | 197,941 | 195,056 | 178,343 | 176,602 | 184,901 | 179,961 | 167,695 |

ASSIZES AND QUARTER SESSIONS, 1909

| | Persons Tried. | | | No Bill. | Ac- quitted. | Persons Convicted and Sentenced. | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------------|--------|----------|-----------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| | Males. | Fe- males. | Total. | | | D'th. | Penal Servitude. | Impris- onment. | Reform- atory Tr'm't. | Recog- nizanc's | Other- wise. |
| Offences against the Person | 1,948 | 352 | 2,300 | 80 | 564 | 31 | 160 | 1,123 | 31 | 249 | 21 |
| Offences against Property | 9,767 | 734 | 10,501 | 100 | 1,445 | — | 834 | 6,911 | 180 | 989 | 13 |
| Other Offences .. | 806 | 142 | 948 | 27 | 129 | — | 55 | 428 | 13 | 231 | 55 |
| Totals | 12,521 | 1,228 | 13,749 | 207 | 2,138 | 31 | 1,049 | 8,462 | 224 | 1,469 | 89 |

COURTS OF SUMMARY JURISDICTION, 1909.

| | Persons Proceeded Against. | Charge Dis- missed. | Charge Proved, no Con- viction. | Convicted and Sentenced. | | | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--------------------------|---------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------|
| | | | | Imprison- ment. | Fine. | Whipping. | Reforma- tory. | Recog- nizances. |
| Indictable Offences .. | 53,401 | 5,949 | 15,415 | 18,934 | 9,264 | 1,805 | 1,074 | 406 |
| Other Offences | 659,106 | 79,253 | 54,979 | 64,538 | 450,667 | — | 157 | 2,593 |
| | 712,507 | 85,202 | 70,394 | 83,472 | 459,931 | 1,805 | 1,231 | 2,999 |

Civil Statistics.

THE CIVIL COURTS, 1909.

| Courts. | Pro- ceedings Begun. | Actions Heard. |
|--|----------------------------|-------------------|
| <i>Appellate Courts.</i> | | |
| Privy Council | 92 | 66 |
| House of Lords | 108 | 60 |
| Court of Appeal | 826 | 658 |
| High Court Appeals .. (From Inferior Courts.) | 419 | — |
| <i>Courts of First Instance.</i> | | |
| Chancery Division | 6,508 | 850 |
| King's Bench Division .. | 66,573 | 2,902 |
| Probate Actions | 215 | 99 |
| Divorce, &c., Suits | 984 | 822 |
| Admiralty Actions | 585 | 313 |
| Lunacy | 775 | 749 |
| Railway and Canal Commission | 171 | 156 |
| County Courts | 1,399,144 | 468,556 |
| Mayor's Court | 11,066 | 312 |
| Borough Courts of Record, &c. | 24,918 | 328 |
| Lancaster Chancery C't | 654 | 88 |
| Durham Chancery Court | 38 | 6 |
| Ecclesiastical Courts.... | 6 | 9 |
| Total | 1,513,082 | 476,332 |

THE COUNTY COURTS.

It will be observed that practically the whole increase is to be attributed to the work of the County Courts. In view of the proposals contained in the Lord Chancellor's **County Courts Bill**, which would grant increased jurisdiction to the County Court judges, the increasing popularity of these, comparatively speaking, cheap organs of justice is of some importance. Only 725 cases in the County Courts were heard before juries. In 1891, when the number of cases was less by 300,000, the number of cases for which a jury was empanelled was 1,505. In the year 1910 the number of jury cases had sunk to 677. The total amount received in fees by County Courts in 1910 was £541,401, and the amount paid out to suitors was £2,279,549. The exorbitant character of the fees charged in small debt cases has been frequently attacked. 2s. in the £1 means £5 on £50, and this is drawn by the Treasury in priority to creditors, whether the debtor be able to pay his other creditors or not.

SECTION XIII.—EDUCATION.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ENGLAND & WALES.

The Education Estimates given on page 59 explain the allocation of the Parliamentary vote for education. We give here the summary of the accounts for Elementary Education, showing the amount received from the Exchequer, the share borne by local rates, and

the chief items of expenditure, also the growth of local debt on account of Education. The total amount spent on Elementary Education in 1909-10 was £23,323,301, derived in nearly equal parts from the Imperial Exchequer and the rates.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.—CURRENT ACCOUNT.—ENGLAND AND WALES.

| Receipts. | 1905-6 Mill. £ | 1906-7 Mill. £ | 1907-8 Mill. £ | 1908-9 Mill. £ | 1909-10 Mill. £ |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| From Parliamentary grants..... | 10·8 | 11·4 | 11·1 | 11·3 | — |
| From Local rates | 9·2 | 9·5 | 10·5 | 11·2 | — |

Small sums amounting to less than half a million per annum are derived from other sources.

| Expenditure | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ | Mill. £ |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Salaries, Public Elementary Schools.... | 13·2 | 13·9 | 14·3 | 14·6 | — |
| Other expenses | 3·4 | 3·3 | 3·5 | 3·7 | — |
| Industrial and Special Schools | ·4 | ·4 | ·5 | ·5 | — |
| Administration | 1·1 | 1·1 | 1·1 | 1·2 | — |
| Loan Charges | 2·3 | 2·4 | 2·5 | 2·6 | — |
| *Total | 20·4 | 21·2 | 22·0 | — | — |
| Local Debt for Education:— | | | | | |
| Higher and Elementary | 40·6 | 41·8 | 42·8 | 44·5 | — |

* Total payments out of current account, including other payments and expenses for Provisions of Meals Act, Medical Inspection, &c.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

| | 1900 | 1906 | 1907 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Elementary : | | | | | | |
| Places in Council schools | 2,786,000 | 3,553,000 | 3,674,000 | 3,772,000 | 3,872,000 | 3,935,000 |
| Places in Voluntary schools | 3,724,000 | 3,507,000 | 3,407,000 | 3,316,000 | 3,246,000 | 3,200,000 |
| Average attendance (all class schools) | — | — | — | 5,292,144 | 5,344,693 | 5,364,106 |
| Percentage of attendance to numbers on register | 82·06 | 87·92 | 88·43 | 88·37 | 88·98 | 88·31 |
| Partial exemption scholars | 89,036 | 81,981 | 88,493 | 84,695 | 79,135 | 75,758 |
| Certif. teachers on staff (College trained), men | 17,651 | 20,476 | 21,174 | 22,024 | 22,640 | 23,381 |
| Certif. teachers on staff (College trained), women | 19,317 | 24,074 | 25,329 | 26,752 | 28,035 | 29,950 |
| Certif. teachers on staff (non-college), men | 6,905 | 8,938 | 9,339 | 9,181 | 9,386 | 9,424 |
| Certif. teachers on staff (non-college), women | 20,136 | 30,787 | 33,627 | 33,171 | 34,712 | 34,640 |
| Other recognised men | 5,122 | 5,488 | 5,383 | 5,867 | 6,545 | 6,944 |
| Teachers on staff women | 44,855 | 58,375 | 57,277 | 58,915 | 57,868 | 57,407 |
| Scholars in Hr. Elem. Schools | — | 9,250 | 10,949 | 9,909 | 10,821 | 12,184 |
| Teachers in Hr. Elem. Schools | — | 403 | 457 | 465 | 521 | 618 |
| Scholars in Blind and Deaf Schs. | — | 4,560 | 4,960 | 5,063 | 5,139 | 5,255 |
| Teachers in Blind and Deaf Schs. | 566 | 547 | 621 | 615 | 606 | 786 |
| Scholars, defective and epileptic | — | 9,818 | 11,954 | 13,463 | 14,947 | 16,644 |
| Teachers for defective and epileptic | — | 482 | 566 | 653 | 717 | 802 |
| Secondary : | | | | | | |
| Pupils in approved secondary schools— | | | | | | |
| Evening classes* | — | 525,486 | 551,968 | 583,990 | 596,034 | 632,654 |
| Day technical schools* | — | 4,862 | 7,793 | 8,311 | 9,636 | 10,757 |
| Technical institutions* | — | 2,082 | 2,143 | 2,465 | 3,010 | 2,664 |
| Art classes— | | | | | | |
| Pupils in art classes* | — | 1,416 | 2,181 | 2,158 | 2,642 | 2,696 |
| Pupils in schools of art | — | 42,412 | 42,689 | 41,723 | 42,112 | 43,973 |

* Pupils on account of whom grants were made.

Is the Profession Overstocked?

(2) That the unemployment is temporary and due to the fact that all the teachers emerge from their training at the same time of year. It is suggested that new colleges should make the college year end in December.

THE HOLMES CIRCULAR.

The publication of the terms of the now famous "Holmes Memorandum," drawn up by H.M. late Chief Inspector of Schools, and issued confidentially to the district inspectors, caused a storm among the teachers of the country. The memorandum, which criticised the local inspectorate and made certain strictures on the rank and file of elementary teachers, was brought to the notice of the House of Commons by Mr. Hoare, M.P.

Of the local inspectorate, it was stated that

"Of these 123 inspectors 109 are men and only 14 are women. No fewer than 104 out of the 123 are ex-elementary teachers, and of the remaining 19 not more than two or three have had the antecedents which we usually look for in our candidates for junior inspectorships, *i.e.*, have been educated first at a public school and then at Oxford or Cambridge."

The strictures on elementary teachers were incidental to the criticisms of that part of the local inspectorate derived from the ranks of elementary teachers.

The President of the Board admitted an error of judgment on the part of the Permanent Secretary in permitting the circulation of the memorandum, but he expressly stated that the permanent officials of the Board had carried out his policy loyally. In answer to the many questions addressed to him on the subject of the inspectorate, Mr. Runciman gave the following information:—

The number of inspectors of schools of all grades at present on the staff of the Board is 361, of whom 26 are women. Of the men, 74 were, at the time of appointment, graduates of Oxford, 71 were graduates of Cambridge, 47 were graduates of London, 15 were graduates of other Universities of the United Kingdom, two were graduates of foreign Universities, and 126, the great

majority of whom were appointed as sub-inspectors, had no degree. Of the 126, eight are known to have taken degrees after their appointment to the staff of the Board.

Some of the above hold degrees of more than one University, but they have been assigned to the Universities at which the greater part of their University education has been received.

Of the women 15 have no University degree, four are graduates of London, five are graduates of other Universities of the United Kingdom, one has taken the final examinations qualifying for an Honours degree at Oxford, and another has taken the final examinations qualifying for an Honours degree at Cambridge.

The appointment in four years of inspectors of all grades are as follows:—

| | 1907 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 |
|---|------|------|------|------|
| Oxford and Cambridge Graduates | 6 | 10 | 9 | 15 |
| Persons experienced in Elementary School Teaching | 6 | 5 | 8 | 6 |

On the Education Vote in July, Mr. Runciman took the opportunity of further defending his position, claiming that judgment should be given not on the opinions of Mr. Holmes, but on the President's actual practice in making appointments. He put in a satisfactory defence against the prevailing suspicion that the chances of inspectorships were closed against men of humble origin who had been either scholars or teachers in elementary schools. Mr. Goldstone expressed the views of moderate men among the aggrieved teachers when he stated that what elementary teachers demanded with regard to the inspectorate was not that the Board should be restricted to selection from the ranks of teachers, but that inexperience should not be positively glorified.

Training and Registration of Teachers.

The new regulations for the training of teachers for elementary schools contain an important innovation. Hitherto, students attending training departments in connection with the Universities have been compelled to complete the necessary professional training simultaneously with the degree course. The strain of this double work need not be imposed in the future. The course will be extended over four years, the first three being devoted to degree work, and the last year to the practice and theory of teaching.

The Register of Teachers started by the Education Act of 1899 fell into such bad repute on account of the unfortunate division of teachers into two columns that it was formally abandoned by the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act of 1907. In 1911, Sir Robert Morant issued from the Board of Education a scheme for a

Teachers' Council, based largely on the recommendations put forward by Educationists in Council at the Clothworkers' Hall two years before. By this time attention was concentrated on the unification of the profession by a Council in which all branches of education should be represented, rather than on the register itself. The Council suggested by Sir R. Morant is to consist of four groups of eleven members each:—

(1) Elementary School Teachers (Nat. Un. 10, Nat. Assoc. of Head Teachers 2, Nat. Assoc. of Assistant Teachers 2);

(2) Secondary Teachers, representing the various bodies;

(3) University Teachers (one each from the 11 universities of England and Wales);

(4) Technical and Specialist Teachers.

The Chairman, who brings the Council up to the number of 45, is to be chosen by the members from outside.

RURAL EDUCATION.

The Rural School—Then and Now.

The rural school of the eighties, and even of the early nineties, was too often a group of 40 to 50 children of all ages and both sexes under the guidance of one struggling teacher. Here is an Inspector's report of a rural school of that period:—

"I spent an afternoon in a village school. The number present was 44; 35 of these were spread over the first five standards, and nine infants were in two groups. Thus the master, a man of 60 years, had seven classes to teach. And he had no help whatever, except for the needlework. I sat in the school and watched him with deep interest. Seven classes were to be kept going. How would it be done? First, the two groups of infants were set to copy some letters that had been put on the black-board; then Standard I. was set to transcription; IV. and V. worked sums from their arithmetics; and the master gave the object lesson for the day to II. and III. combined. This lesson was remarkable; it was broken in so many pieces. A boy would stand up in IV. or V. and say, 'Please, Sir!' The master would turn from his class, ask the interrupter for his difficulty, give him a hint, or step to his side, and, quickly returning, pick up the thread of the broken lesson as best he might. Or with a side glance he would observe a boy or girl apparently stuck in a sum; and 'Are you fast? Tell me if you are fast' was thrown encouragingly again and again to the group at arithmetic. Two or three excursions to the infants, a hasty inspection, from his place, of the Standard I. transcription, an order to clean slates and refill them; such breaks were constantly recurring; yet on through it all went the object lesson."

Against this may be set Mr. Runci-man's description of what is taking place in rural schools to-day:—

"Let me take now as another example a country school—quite a commonplace school with nothing exceptional about it. Both boys and girls are under a mistress. At 11 o'clock the boys go out to their school-gardening; they take notebooks with them, on which to record what they have done; they watch their seeds progressing,

and they make sketches of what grows up. The girls have a flower garden. This school garden system is springing up all over the United Kingdom. In Suffolk I know another case where the schoolmaster not only has a school garden, but where the children were taught to build a poultry run for teaching them the care of poultry, and where they have even with their own hands made a river bath in the river close by. In that county no less than 100 gardens are in working order. School journeys, too, have been organised with great advantage to the children. They study literature and singing, and make maps and sketch, and they come back with a wider knowledge of the history of their own area."

Nowadays, in fact, compound multiplication and the "object" lesson have to find their level alongside with instruction in cookery (316,343 pupils), laundry (96,317), domestic subjects (16,032), handicraft (225,077), gardening (28,792). Gardening is taught in 1,241 elementary schools and 450 evening schools.

A recent report tells of an experiment carried out in a number of schools working under the Lindsey Education Committee in which three afternoons a week are devoted to practical work. The boys do gardening, wood-work, light wood-work, geometrical work in cardboard and paper, clay-modelling and practical bee-keeping; for the girls needlework and domestic work take the place of wood-work and gardening. Attempts are made to co-ordinate the handicraft taught with out-door occupations. The boy carpenter makes sticks and labels for the garden, hen coops, and possibly even a tool shed. The teaching is made, that is to say, wherever possible, to serve a practical end. Rural county authorities have issued reports showing the success attained by the new system. Lindsey, with 40 school gardens and 26 experimental schools, finds that on the whole the children are brighter, and that the dull child especially gains in self-respect by finding that he can, at least, compete on equal terms with his cleverer neighbours in something.

THE HUNGRY CHILD.

The expenses of education authorities in respect of the provision of meals were £7,233 in 1908-9 and £134,105 in 1909-10. The conditions under which meals are provided for school children by the local authority are (1) that other funds are insufficient or not available for feeding the children, (2) that the rate levied for the purpose does not exceed a halfpenny in the £.

The amount recovered from parents in 1909-10 was only £906, including £225 paid by Poor Law Guardians.

Some interesting details of the cost of the Provision of Meals to school children in different centres are pro-

vided by a report presented recently to a local Education Committee. At Brighton an old covered play-shed was adapted as a cooking centre at a cost of £260. The staff employed comprised a chief cook at £1 per week, an assistant at 10s., two juniors at 4s. and 2s. 6d. respectively. The meals are distributed by vans by contract with a carting firm. The average cost of the Brighton meals is put between 1½d. and 1¾d. per meal, the total number supplied being 62,246. Manchester, which finds 452,669 meals, has a necessarily larger kitchen staff, the meals being served in 21 canteen centres by women specially engaged for the purpose.

TECHNICAL TRAINING FOR THE FARMER.

The activities of the various councils take various forms. In the West Riding rural education is organised in evening schools, Bedfordshire provides a farm school; Wiltshire provides itinerant instruction in farm processes; the Lindsey boy may obtain an agricultural scholarship which will carry him eventually to the agricultural department of the University; while the Essex Committee is prepared to provide expert advice for small holders and others.

The Rural Education Conference published in 1911 two reports on "a suggested type of agricultural school and on the qualification of teachers of rural subjects." It appeared from the evidence that the chief difficulty in pursuing a higher standard of rural education lies in the unwillingness, and in many cases the inability, of the parents to dispense with the assistance afforded by the children's earnings.

The evidence showed that few teachers were specially qualified in rural subjects because of a reluctance to add to the curriculum for the training of teachers; some witnesses stated there was also some hesitation on the part of teachers to accept any label which might mark them out especially for rural service. In general, the case was met by the provision by the local Education Authority of special courses for the teachers actually working in the schools.

The Board has issued a special memorandum for the guidance of local authorities who wish to establish a reasonable system of rural education from the elementary school upwards. Until recently, higher education has been taken to be synonymous with the abandonment of agriculture. Some Cumberland lads informed the Inspector that several lads from their village had got scholarships to the Grammar School in the neighbouring town, "but had come back to farming, so that the education was wasted!" The new system is destined to alter this view of the question. The policy of

the Board is to encourage in Secondary Schools in rural areas not necessarily narrowly technical subjects, but subjects like chemistry and biology, which lie at the basis of a future technical training. The purely technical education must be completed by means of the Farm School, the Agricultural Institute, or through the itinerant instructors in farming, farriery, dairying, &c.

The Treasury is making grants out of the Development Fund to Local Authorities in aid of **Farm Institutes**.

It is intended that a Farm Institute should serve as the head-quarters for the miscellaneous and itinerant work of the agricultural staff, and for educational demonstrations and similar purposes, and that it should also provide accommodation for central courses of instruction in agriculture and kindred subjects. These central courses might include, for example:—

1. A 16 to 20 weeks' winter agricultural course for the sons of small farmers who have acquired some practical experience on the land since leaving elementary schools.

2. Shorter courses in dairy work, poultry-keeping, and the like during spring and summer.

3. Vacation courses for teachers of rural subjects in local continuation courses.

It is regarded as essential for the successful working of a farm institute that there should be a farm and a garden attached. These will be required in connection with the internal courses of the institute, and must be worked as far as possible on business principles. In some cases a "small holding" for demonstration purposes may be added.

The claims of agriculture were formally acknowledged by the University of Cambridge in 1899, when a chair of agriculture was endowed. Cambridge now possesses a suitable building for the School of Agriculture, to which is attached a farm of about 230 acres. In the school and on the farm research work in all the departments of agriculture is now being done.

The School Journey.

One of the methods taken nowadays to stimulate the intelligence of the elementary school child is the school journey. Mr. Bray has described the journeys carried out successfully in a London school during the Easter holiday. The party consists of about 40 or 50 scholars under the care of three or more teachers. Journeys have been made by the scholars of this school to Abergavenny, Chepstow, Malvern, and other places. The experiment has resulted in more cordial relations between teachers, scholars, and parents; interest has been quickened in geography, topography, and local history, and the discipline and tone of the schools which have taken advantage of the scheme have been improved.

Teachers' Pensions.

Under the new Scottish Pension Scheme, it appears that every teacher, whether engaged in elementary, secondary, or "special" work, may retire at 60, and is compelled to do so at 65, when he receives his pension. The Superannuation Fund is constituted by contributions on the part of the teacher, the State, and the local authority, and the pension works out approximately, after forty years' service, at half-pay. In case of death or resignation, the teacher or his representative may obtain the repayment of his personal contribution.

At present in England and Wales, men teachers averaging 40 years of service are at 65 retiring on an allowance averaging £39 a year.

THE HEALTH OF THE SCHOOL CHILD.

The Results of Medical Inspection.

The Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, which has been rightly termed the "Children's Charter of Health," imposed upon local education authorities the duty of medically inspecting school children "immediately before, or at the time of, or as soon as possible after their admission to a public elementary school, and on such other occasions as the Board of Education direct," and the Board have insisted on not less than three inspections of each child. The Act has provided us with a system of periodical stock-taking in national health, the results of which have revealed widespread physical defects in the nation's children. It is becoming generally realised that it is extravagant folly to attempt to educate children who are physically incapable, from defective eyesight or otherwise, of being properly educated, and that true economy and national interests, no less than humane feeling, demand that no practicable effort must be spared to safeguard the health of the children.

The Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education tells us that of the six million children in the public elementary schools of England and Wales, about 10 per cent. suffer from serious defects in vision, 3 to 5 per cent. suffer from defective hearing, and 1 to 3 per cent. from suppurating ears; 8 per cent. have adenoids, or enlarged tonsils, that require surgical treatment, 20 to 40 per cent. have extensive and injurious dental disease, 40 per cent. have verminous heads, 1 per cent. have tuberculosis in a readily recognisable form, and about 2 per cent. are

afflicted with heart disease.

The primary duty of dealing with these defects rests upon the parents, but without some form of assistance from the local education authority a very large proportion of the parents are unable to secure for their children the medical attention they require. Accordingly all over the country education authorities are developing various kinds of remedial agencies. One of these is the provision of spectacles. Last year 37 authorities received the sanction of the Board of Education to provide spectacles free of charge for the children needing such provision. The total cost was about £500, the average cost per pair being from 2s. to 3s. 6d. A large proportion of the parents contributed towards the cost.

In 1909, seven open-air schools were established—three in London, and one each in Bradford, Sheffield, Halifax, and Norwich, and others have since been opened. These schools are intended for children who for various debilitating conditions, such as anæmia, malnutrition, enlarged glands in the neck, &c., are unfit for the ordinary strain of school life. In the open-air schools the children enjoy:—

(1) An open-air life, (2) rest and (3) regular and adequate meals: and the results are remarkably good. The instruction given is practical, comprising gardening, nature study, and general manual work, and both from an educational as well as from a health point of view open-air schools are deserving of encouragement, and should be established by every education authority.

A PLEA FOR THE SCHOOL CLINIC.

In attempting to secure medical treatment for their diseased school children, education authorities have adopted various methods. One is to tell the parent that the child is ill and needs a doctor, and it is not surprising to find that amongst the poor, where money for doctors' bills is scarce, this method results in nothing being done. Another plan is to subsidise local hospitals to treat the children; but this involves public expenditure without public control, for the hospitals, while taking the ratepayers' money, refuse to allow any supervision of their treatment by the ratepayers' officers. Experience is every day proving that the only effective method of treatment is by means of the school clinic.

Any education authority can establish a school clinic if the sanction of the Board of Education be obtained. In the year 1909-10 the Board sanctioned clinics in 11 towns, and others are under consideration. Sir George Newman points out that a school clinic has three advantages:—

First, it serves as a medical centre for the more detailed examination of defective children whom it is impracticable to examine

properly in the routine inspection on school premises. Secondly, it is a centre of medical treatment for certain ailments, such as diseases of the skin, eyes, ears, and teeth, which can be much better dealt with at a school clinic than elsewhere. Thirdly, it is a place of practical nursing, from which the school nurses may work as their centre.

One of the most complete school clinics in the country is that at Bradford, where over 2,000 children are treated yearly.

Dental disease is extremely common in school children. At Cambridge it was found that 50 per cent. of the children aged 13 had nine or more permanent teeth decayed. Disease of the teeth is a serious matter.

Every year it debars thousands of young men from entering the army, and during the South African War no less than 3,600 men were invalided home on account of bad teeth. But the disease can be successfully dealt with. At the Cambridge Dental Clinic, which was established in 1908, and is attended by nearly 3,000 children annually, the results of treatment have proved, according to Mr. Gant, the Borough Dentist, that "with the co-operation of parents and children, no tooth need ever become unserviceable during school life."

THE PROBLEM OF THE BOY.

Wastefulness of Juvenile Labour.

That much unemployment can be directly traced to the deficiencies of our educational system, and to the haphazard carelessness which has allowed juvenile labour to be exploited without any regard to the ultimate loss to the community, is now becoming generally recognised. The wastefulness of the existing **partial exemption** arrangements which obtain chiefly in Lancashire and Yorkshire was forcibly pointed out by an Inter-Departmental Committee which reported in 1909. At present an education authority can make by-laws exempting children between 12 and 14 years of age from the obligation of school attendance for more than a limited number of hours per week. The Committee drew special attention to the harmful effect of the half-time system on the health and character of the 80,000 children concerned, to the futility of wasting public money in attempts to teach children who are tired out by long hours of work in noisy and ill-ventilated mills, to the low percentage of cases in which half-time work led up to permanent employment, and to the fact

proved to demonstration in some of the more progressive textile towns that half-time work is not really necessary.

To carry out the recommendations of the Committee, **Mr. Runciman's Education (School and Continuation Class Attendance) Bill, 1911**, proposes:—

That the obligation to attend school shall be universal and statutory, instead of dependent on local by-laws, up to the age of 13, and that beyond that age every child must continue to attend school up to the age of 14, or (where the principle of compulsory continuation classes up to the age of 16 has been adopted in the locality) obtain special exemption on the ground that he is about to enter beneficial employment. If exempted he will, of course, be bound to attend the evening classes.

But education authorities will be empowered to make by-laws compelling the attendance at school of children between 14 and 15. An exception is allowed in the case of children to be beneficially employed in agriculture, who may be specially exempted from school attendance at 13, even where there is no provision for compulsory attendance at evening classes.

Advice in the Choice of a Career.

It is not sufficient, however, that a higher educational standard should be required. Every year about a million boys and girls leave school. More or less haphazardly, frequently after a considerable interval of demoralising idleness, they drift into jobs, often without any regard either to their own fitness for the particular work, or to the chances it offers of a permanent livelihood. "Blind alley" employments, from which a boy will be discharged at the age of 18 or 19, with no skilled knowledge, and no prospect of ever learning a trade, offer a tempting bait in their certainty of immediate earnings. Often, neither parent nor boy realise their dangers, and if they do, they are frequently ignorant of the better opportunities available. **The Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910**, gave power to education authorities to make arrangements for giving information, advice, and assistance to boys and girls with respect to the choice of employment.

Many education authorities have drawn up schemes for linking up their arrangements for giving advice and assistance to parents with the Board of Trade labour exchanges. Thus **Birmingham** has established a **Central Care Committee**, composed of 6 members of the City Education Committee, 4 social workers, 4 teachers, 4 employers, 4 trade unionists, two labour exchange officials, the chairman of 6 branch committees which will be constituted in various parts of the area, and the Education medical officer.

This body will organise the work of directing the flow of juvenile labour into the most suitable channels by means of **local care committees**, which will keep in close touch with the parents, and by a special juvenile labour exchange, to be established by the Board of Trade. By close co-operation also with the teachers, attempts will be made to persuade parents to put their children into trades, suited to their physique and mental aptitude, which offer reasonably good prospects. Further, the local care committees will attempt, by means of social and athletic clubs, and similar organisations, to keep in touch with the children who have passed through their hands, until they reach the age of 18.

In towns in which the education authorities have not established committees of this type, the Board of Trade has appointed **juvenile advisory committees** of representative employers and workers to assist in similar work. Already they are to be found in 26 provincial towns, and in London there are 13 local advisory committees acting in close touch with the more important labour exchanges. Their objects are:—

(1) To advise parents to extend where possible the period of education so as to fit their children for suitable occupations which also give promise of useful training and permanent employment.

(2) To bring juvenile applicants for employment into touch with suitable employers.

(3) To assist and advise the officials of the Labour Exchanges generally in the juvenile branch of their work.

THE FREE SCHOLAR.

Secondary schools recognised as efficient and receiving grants from Government continue to increase in number. In 1909-10 they made provision for 76,909 boys and 64,649 girls, and may be classified according to the bodies by which they are controlled, as follows:—

| | | |
|-------------------|------------------------------|----|
| Local Authorities | 328 G.P.D.Sc. Trust.. | 29 |
| Endowed Schools | 447 Catholic Teaching Orders | 29 |

Schools recognised as efficient, but not in receipt of a Government grant, numbered 87, providing for 8,215 boys and 7,249 girls. Other schools which receive no grant come under the Board's inspection, so that Mr. Runciman, in speaking on the Education Vote, was able to put the number of secondary schools under the Board's cognisance at 1,060, and their scholars at 161,000. The demand for Government inspection increases. At the invitation of the governing bodies, the Board's inspectors had made full inspections of Dulwich, Repton, Sherborne, and Harrow, a sign that even the great public schools do not stand altogether outside the national system.

A good deal of criticism was aroused during the year by the action of University College School, Hampstead, in declining to continue to admit County Council free scholars on the ground that their presence proved prejudicial to the general interests of the school.

The secondary school, which receives a Government grant is, in the ordinary way, required to supply at least 25 per cent. of its places as free places. This regulation has been relaxed in special cases where the school has been able to prove that the practice puts too great a strain on the school resources. But in many counties, the number of places offered far exceeds the legal requirements, and indeed throughout the country average over 30 per cent. In the county of Durham, the percentage actually offered in the seven schools of the Council was in no case less than 40, and in one instance rose to 83. In the London Secondary Schools, there were in 1911 9,150 ex-elementary scholars receiving free education.

The difficulties occurring at University College School have been successfully surmounted in other schools. Mr. Keeling, the headmaster of Bradford Grammar School, stated in a letter addressed to "The Times," that of the 550 boys under his charge, 200

were free scholars, 80 to 85 per cent. of whom came from public elementary schools. He also stated that these pupils, who form less than a third of the total number of boys, obtain a clear majority of the many honours obtained by the school. He concluded with the words:—

"The future of all our large grammar schools depends upon their recognition by the public authorities as part and parcel of the educational system of the country. But if this end is to be achieved they must be in the fullest sense of the term 'The People's Schools,' and leave no stone unturned to bring the best possible education within the reach of boys of promise in every rank of life."

That this ideal is at least in a fair way towards achievement is shown by Mr. Runciman's statement that the actual number of elementary scholars in England and Wales who are now receiving secondary education was in 1910 97,000. However strong the social barriers at the doors of the great secondary schools may be, they cannot permanently withstand the force of democratic sentiment.

The scholarship system as practised in the elementary school is open to less criticism than that which obtains in secondary schools and institutions of university rank. The scholarships and exhibitions given by "pious donors" to help the poor boy to public school and university education go in many cases not to the necessitous, but to those whose parents have been able to provide an expensive "preparatory" training, or the most scientific "cramming." This evil is bound up with the greater evil of the external examination system which harasses alike teacher and child, and hinders the natural development of the pupil's mind. Onslaughts made on this system during the last year, notably by Mr. Hartog, of London University, and by Mr. Holmes in his book on "What is and what might be," where the results of the application of materialistic ideas to our education system are described. The system as applied to technical education was described by Sir William Ramsay as a form of pauperisation practically unknown in any other country. Our examinations are not designed, he pointed out, to test originality and character. The remedy is to place full confidence in the teacher, and to award honours on his estimate of the student's capacity and ability.

The Imperial Education Conference of 1911 is to be followed by the appointment of an Advisory Committee in London, in which the Dominions, the Crown Colonies and the Board of Education will all be represented to carry on the discussion of educational problems in the intervals between the Conferences which are in the future to be held every four years.

The management of Ruskin College was, at the beginning of 1911, handed over entirely to working-class organisations. Its governors are elected by the Parliamentary Committee of the Trade Union Congress, the Management Committee of the General Federation of Trade Unions, the Co-operative Union, &c., &c.

ORGANISATION OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

The beginning of a better organisation of University education in England has been made by the establishment of a Universities Department at the Board of Education. The grants of Government money, hitherto distributed by the Board of Education, will in future be in the hands of the new department. The Board has in this matter the assistance of an Advisory Committee, présided over by Sir Wm. McCormick.

The number of students in the Universities of England and Wales is, roughly, 27,000, nearly 8,000 of whom are undergraduates of Oxford and Cambridge. Some very plain speaking on the constitution of the older Universities is to be found in Bishop Welldon's presidential address before the Education Section of the British Association.

Side by side with the abolition of the pass degree as we know it, he advocated the long-overdue reform of the **granting of degrees to women equally with men**, and the urgent necessity of financial reform, the first step towards which would be a business-like report on the present administration of the College funds. Still more drastic were

his suggestions with regard to the religious question. In his opinion, Nonconformists should be eligible for lectureships and professorships in the theological faculty.

That theological recognition should be accorded to none but persons of particular views upon theology conflicts with the highest interests of theological learning. At present the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are the close preserves of the Church of England, with the natural result that the modern Universities tend to become the preserves of Nonconformity. Neither class of University is, in his opinion, benefited by the consequent one-sidedness of theological study.

On the social side, college life must be reorganised so as to render intercourse between men of all ranks possible.

London is to see in 1912 a congress of the **Universities of the Empire**, initiated by London University, which will, it is hoped, secure some measure of common action. There is little definite co-operation between colonial and home universities at present, though the Rhodes Scholarships have sent many students of colonial universities to Oxford.

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

More than one attempt has been made in recent years to bring the Universities into closer relationship with commerce and industries. One of the signs of the times is the greater activity of the **Cambridge Appointments Board**, a body the success of which has induced other Universities to set up similar organisations.

Advisory Committees of representative employers in London and Yorkshire help to act as a connecting link between the great staple industries, which need highly-trained technical assistants, and the scientific and engineering departments of the University.

The **Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1851** have apportioned some part of their funds to bursaries for poor students of science who have completed three years' study at a university or approved technical college, but are without the means to support themselves during the year or two which will probably elapse before they earn an adequate wage in industrial pursuits. The bursary may be turned to the study of special industrial processes abroad.

Technical work in **Evening Schools** has been better organised than most departments of technical education. The instruction there given is directed in the main to the training of the skilled operative. The London artisan may, if he pleases, perfect himself at a nominal cost in his own section of the building, engineering, printing, furniture, silver working, carriage-building, baking, and leather trades in one of the institutions maintained by the County Council. Similar provision in most of the great cities.

The **Day Trade School** continues to make headway. At Birmingham, Bolton, Bradford, Manchester, Preston, and other great centres, as well as in London, the Education Authority has obtained the co-operation of large employers, who allow their young work-people to attend classes during the day. Most important of all, technical training in day and evening is being brought into immediate contact with the trade concerned. Advisory Committees representing employers and Trade Unions visit the classes and make representation. The workshop is still the door to a skilled trade, but the avenue in an increasing number of cases is through one grade or another of technical training.

A new league having for its object the promotion of industrial training was formed in 1911 at a Guildhall meeting présided over by the Lord Mayor, who was supported by many distinguished educationists and by representatives of Labour. The Conference urged:—

that a national system of industrial, professional, and commercial training should be established, to which the children shall pass as a matter of course (unless the parents are prepared to undertake their future training), and without interval, for a definite period, to be thoroughly trained for entry to the particular calling for which they are best fitted, such training to be under fully qualified instructors.

"That the Government be urged to provide by legislation such a complete system of training, free to all scholars, and the expenses thereof defrayed from the National Exchequer."

A DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION.

Energy, enthusiasm, and hard work during the eight years since the foundation of the **Workers' Educational Association** have proved that long hours of manual labour do not necessarily destroy the demand for higher education among the adult working population of this country. The movement represented by the W.E.A. is essentially a democratic one. The organisations, local and central, are controlled by the workers, who themselves select the course of education suitable to their wants. The Association, beside seeking to provide facilities for higher education, stimulates interest in local educational matters and in local government generally. It becomes in this way more and more a social force. The work done was recognised officially by the inspectors of the Board of Education. "If," they wrote, "it comes to be the custom of those who take an interest in public affairs to prepare themselves by attending classes of the kind organised by the Association, the results will be of considerable importance."

But the supreme object, to which other activities of the Association are subsidiary, is to bring the artisan into close association with the University in two ways:—

(1) By securing the representation of workpeople on the governing bodies and committees of Universities. Thus, at Bristol, through the efforts of the local W.E.A. branch, eight representatives of Labour are governors of the University. At Oxford, London, Durham, Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, and Sheffield, the Association has helped to create joint committees on which Labour is represented equally with the Universities. It has also led to the formation of a Central Joint Advisory Committee consisting of representatives of every University and University College in England and Wales, together with workpeople.

(2) By the creation of University Tutorial Classes.—A tutorial class consists of not more than 30 men and women, who meet under a University teacher during three successive winter sessions for the study of a subject selected by themselves. Each

member of the class must promise on joining it to miss no attendance during three sessions, unless unavoidably, and to write 12 essays each session. The classes are held weekly throughout the winter, and are of two hours' duration, the second hour being reserved for questions and discussion. Each class is governed by the Joint Committee of the University under which it is working; it earns a substantial grant from the Board of Education, and frequently gets generous assistance from the local education authority.

The following figures show the growth of these classes:—

| | 1907-8 | 1908-9 | 1909-10 | 1910-11 |
|--------------|--------|--------|---------|---------|
| Classes | 2 | 8 | 39 | 71 |
| Students .. | 60 | 237 | 1,117 | 2,000 |

(estimated)

In addition to the 71 full tutorial classes now in existence there are a number of provisional classes working on similar lines, with an estimated membership of 1,000 students; such classes will, in most cases, become tutorial classes in the near future.

It will be readily realised that to serious, continuous study of this kind, long hours, overtime, short time, unemployment, or industrial disturbances of any kind offer serious obstacles. Nevertheless, the work increases. An interesting development of the tutorial class work is seen in the summer classes held by the Oxford Joint Committee in Oxford for periods of a week or a fortnight during the Long Vacation. The Summer School, where artisans and scholars meet, has an educational value out of all proportion to the paper results. The weekend classes arranged at Leeds and Halifax have also yielded excellent results.

Appended are figures showing the increasing hold gained by the movement on the working classes of this country:

| | 1906 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 | 1911 |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Branches..... | 13 | 50 | 54 | 71 | 86 |
| Affiliated bodies | 283 | 925 | 1,124 | 1,389 | 1,541 |
| Individual members (in addition) | 2,612 | 5,257 | 5,484 | 5,801 | 5,345 |

SCHOOL ENDOWMENTS.

As the result of their inquiry, the Committee appointed to inquire into the administration of educational endowments concluded that an alteration of the existing law is required in three principal directions, viz:—

(1) To relieve the Board of Education of some of the work in connection with elementary endowments.

(2) To provide a legislative remedy for the general failure of educational trusts.

(3) To give local education authorities throughout the country some control over these endowments.

It is recommended that the County Councils in their capacity as Local Education Authorities should perform the functions at present performed by the Board of Educa-

tion with regard to the administration of endowments for elementary schools, and that the range of educational objects to which trustees may apply their funds should be widely extended.

The following classes of charities should remain under the control of the Board of Education:—

(a) Endowments or parts of endowments held for solely religious education or solely for denominational purposes.

(b) The sites and buildings of non-provided schools and of disused non-provided schools.

(c) Non-local charities (subject to certain conditions).

(d) Charities which the Board of Education regard as unsuitable for transfer.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS of LIFE ASSURANCE.

There are few phases of modern business life where the tendency to cater for present-day requirements is more marked than in the field of Life Assurance. The keen competition that exists between Life Offices has had the effect not only of giving the public excellent value for their money, but also of constantly causing fresh provision to be made for their varied needs. Thus scheme after scheme is produced, each one offering peculiar attractions for a particular class. Each Life Office may be said to have its own particular project of which it makes a speciality, many of them being variations of one idea, and the distinction between them being small. The following schemes stand out as constituting the most useful variations of Ordinary Life Assurance that have been brought forward in recent years.

Assurance without Medical Examination.—To obviate the ordeal from which many persons shrink, of having to undergo a medical examination, which is the usual preliminary to a contract of Life Assurance, a scheme is now being worked by certain offices under which the medical examination is entirely dispensed with. To protect themselves, the offices which issue policies on these conditions supply the applicant with a list of searching questions regarding his antecedents, his own habits of life and liability to disease, incorrect answers to which may result in the forfeiture of a policy. The offices further protect themselves against the possible presence of some lurking disease by reducing the sum assured during the first year or two of the policy's existence or by charging an extra premium for a similar term.

Provident Policies for Children.—Many offices now issue policies to provide funds for the education of children and for starting them in life. There are numerous variations of the scheme, the two following being the most general. In return for an annual premium starting with the first year of a child's life, or as soon after as practicable, a policy is issued under which a sum of money is payable in instalments during the years when the education of a child becomes the most expensive. In the event of the death of the child before such age is reached, the money paid in premiums would be returned to the parent intact, together with interest at a low rate. Another class of policy is that under which the life of a child is insured in return for a small annual premium until a specified age is reached when numerous options may be exercised. These may take the form of the payment of a stated sum which may be used for the purpose of starting a son in business, or the policy may be converted into an endowment or whole life policy on which the original premium would continue to be paid. Under this scheme,

in the event of the early death of the child, the premiums paid would be returned in full. There is this further advantage, that the policy may be continued through life without a medical examination having to be undergone, with its possible risk of rejection.

Annuity Schemes.—The terms upon which annuities may be purchased have been somewhat varied in recent years with a view to meeting the objection that a large loss of capital may occur as a result of the early death of an annuitant. To overcome this, some of the Life Offices now issue Annuity Bonds guaranteeing that if death occur before the annuity payments equal the amount paid for their purchase, the difference will be refunded to the annuitant's representative upon proof of death. This may prove a very useful provision in certain circumstances, but the annuity granted for a given sum is, of course, not quite so large as in the case of ordinary annuities. Some of the Life Offices are also now undertaking to grant increased annuities for a given sum when the health of a proposed annuitant is impaired, the increase varying according to whether the impairment is of a slight or a serious nature.

Schemes for Women Workers.—The large increase in the employment of women workers has caused some of the offices to devise schemes which are specially adapted to meet their requirements. These principally have in view the possibility of women having to provide for themselves when working days are over and consist in economically arranged plans for the purchase of deferred annuities. By the payment of a small yearly premium in early life and onwards, a woman can provide for the purchase of an annuity payable to her by the time she reaches middle age. Should marriage intervene, arrangements can be made for the return with interest of all the premiums paid, though such a provision as this would, of course, involve a small diminution in the amount of the annuity ultimately payable in return for a given premium. Such a scheme has much to commend itself to women workers who have no one dependent upon them, for it enables them to make provision for the future, whilst avoiding the risk attaching to unskilful investment.

OSCAR DARTON, F.C.A. F.S.S.

Building Societies.

In 1908—the latest year for which figures are available—there were 1,808 building societies in the United Kingdom, with total liabilities on shares of over 40 millions sterling, and to depositors and other creditors of £14,800,000. The number of societies has sunk from 2,564 in 1896.

SECTION XIV.—SOCIAL REFORM.

DESTITUTION IN 1911.

The Effect of Old Age Pensions.

The salient feature of the returns of pauperism for January 1st, 1911, is the reduction caused by the grant of old-age pensions. This is particularly marked in the case of outdoor relief. Up to January 1st, 1911, receipt of poor relief since the beginning of 1908 acted as a disqualification for a person. It is probable that a number of persons of advanced age, who would otherwise have applied for poor-law relief, refrained from doing so in view of this disqualification, and were saved the necessity by becoming pensioners. This, no doubt, operated to reduce pauperism both in 1910 and in the previous year.

On January 1st, 1911, the pauper disqualification was removed, and as the first payment of pensions took place on

January 6th, a large number ceased to be on the relief lists, in view of this, on or before January 1st. A separate return shows that the cessation of the disqualification appears to have brought about 122,000 paupers off the relief lists during the month, but only about 47,000 had actually ceased to receive relief on January 1st. It is to be noted, however, that, as compared with January 1st, 1910, the number of persons under 70 years of age in receipt of relief on January 1st, 1911, rose by 3,554. The table at the foot of the page shows that since 1875 the rate of pauperism for England and Wales has diminished by nearly one-third, and it exhibits also the increasing tendency to insist on admission to an institution as a condition of relief.

PAUPERS IN RECEIPT OF RELIEF ON 1ST JAN. IN ENGLAND AND WALES IN VARIOUS YEARS.

| Year. | Estimated Population. | Paupers—except Casual and Insane Paupers. | | Casual Paupers. | Insane. | | Total Number Relieved. | Rate per 1,000 of estimated Population | |
|-------|-----------------------|---|----------|-----------------|-------------|---------|------------------------|--|---------|
| | | Indoor. | Outdoor. | | In Asylums. | Others. | | England and Wales. | London. |
| 1875 | 23,724,834 | 138,228 | 623,345 | 2,235 | 32,339 | 22,065 | 817,822 | 34.5 | 32.9 |
| 1880 | 25,371,489 | 172,910 | 603,919 | 5,914 | 39,150 | 22,145 | 843,854 | 33.3 | 28.6 |
| 1885 | 26,922,192 | 172,901 | 541,866 | 4,866 | 46,522 | 22,866 | 788,902 | 29.3 | 26.4 |
| 1890 | 28,448,239 | 177,295 | 535,638 | 5,701 | 51,809 | 23,022 | 793,246 | 27.9 | 27.4 |
| 1895 | 30,104,201 | 198,518 | 536,175 | 8,810 | 60,896 | 22,008 | 826,241 | 27.4 | 28.0 |
| 1900 | 31,881,365 | 199,370 | 503,515 | 5,517 | 72,207 | 22,662 | 803,247 | 25.2 | 27.8 |
| 1905 | 33,763,434 | 238,316 | 570,613 | 9,887 | 83,816 | 22,646 | 924,630 | 27.5 | 32.6 |
| 1910 | 35,756,615 | 270,655 | 539,187 | 10,392 | 93,076 | 23,432 | 935,738 | 26.4 | 32.2 |
| 1911 | 35,796,289 | 269,691 | 493,853 | 10,474 | 94,985 | 23,879 | 891,807 | 24.9 | 31.4 |

Classification of Paupers.

Excluding casuals, the persons receiving relief may be classified thus:—

| | Men. | Women. | Children. |
|-------------------|---------|---------|-----------|
| Indoor | 132,418 | 83,783 | 72,648 |
| Outdoor | 86,523 | 228,694 | 183,352 |
| Lunatics, &c. . . | 43,359 | 50,665 | 961 |
| | 262,305 | 363,142 | 256,961 |

Indoor relief was distributed as follows:—

| POOR LAW ESTABLISHMENTS. | |
|--|---------|
| Infirmaries and sick institutions..... | 70,092 |
| Infirm wards of workhouses..... | 39,155 |
| Casual wards | 10,028 |
| Other workhouse wards..... | 130,725 |
| Separate children's establishments.... | 32,745 |
| Homes for aged..... | 1,080 |
| PRIVATE OR OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS. | |
| Sick establishments | 4,055 |
| Training homes and schools..... | 10,107 |

Outdoor pauperism was distributed thus:—

| | |
|-------------------------------|---------|
| Medical relief | 18,793 |
| Children boarded out | 9,669 |
| Ordinary outdoor relief | 470,558 |

The large part played by disease as a source of pauperism is shown by the following further division:—

| | Number. | Percentage |
|---|---------|------------|
| Ordinarily able-bodied | 132,883 | .. 14.9 |
| Sick, aged, or infirm | 376,086 | .. 42.1 |
| Insane | 118,364 | .. 13.3 |
| Children (not insane) and casuals | 265,049 | .. 29.7 |

These figures suggest that the Insurance Bill may reasonably be expected to bring about a large reduction in the cost of poor-law relief.

| The Able-bodied. | | No. in |
|---|--|------------------|
| Cause of Relief. | | England & Wales. |
| Able-bodied men:— | | |
| Personal sickness | | 10,700 |
| Sickness or funeral of member of family | | 4,662 |
| Sudden and urgent necessity | | 554 |
| Want of work or other causes..... | | 2,676 |
| Able-bodied women (not wives of paupers):— | | |
| Widows | | 33,898 |
| Other women (including wives of prisoners, soldiers, sailors, &c., single women, and unmarried mothers) | | 8,041 |

It is noticeable that the number of men relieved on account of want of work on January 1st was 6,374 in 1909, 3,252 in 1910. and 2,676 in 1911.

Aged.

The number of paupers in England and Wales over 70 years old is shown by the following:—

| | London. | | England & Wales (includ'g London). | |
|---------|---------|--------|------------------------------------|--------|
| | Men. | Women. | Men. | Women. |
| Indoor | 7,899 | 7,632 | 32,402 | 22,860 |
| Outdoor | 1,800 | 6,729 | 26,082 | 67,095 |
| Totals | 9,699 | 14,361 | 58,484 | 89,955 |

The number decreased by 47,485, or 24.7 per cent., during 1910—a result, of course, directly attributable to old-age pensions.

Lunatics and Idiots.

Reference to the table will show that the number of insane persons receiving assistance from the poor law has, without intermission, increased year by year—a disquieting fact to which public attention has been drawn by the modern study of eugenics. Between 1872 and 1911 the number has risen from 49,986 to 118,864, an increase of 138 per cent. In 1872 lunatics and idiots represented 5.1 per cent. of paupers relieved, or 2.2 per 1,000 of population; in 1911 the percentage was 13.3, or 3.3 per 1,000 of population.

Cost of Pauperism.

Though the aggregate cost of poor relief in England and Wales has shown a steady upward tendency during the past 25 years, and though the cost per head of population has increased, too, yet increased rateable value has kept the Poor Rate fairly constant.

EXPENDITURE ON POOR RELIEF.

| Year. | Expenditure on poor relief. | Cost per head of population. | Cost per £ of rateable value. |
|-------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | £ | s. d. | s. d. |
| 1885 | 8,491,600 | 6 3½ | 1 1.8 |
| 1895 | 9,866,605 | 6 6½ | 1 1.0 |
| 1905 | 13,851,981 | 8 2½ | 1 4.0 |
| 1908 | 14,308,426 | 8 2½ | 1 3.3 |
| 1909 | 14,717,098 | 8 4 | 1 3.2 |

In order to obtain a complete view of the volume of pauperism in England and Wales, the Poor Law Commission instituted an enquiry into the total number of persons relieved in the 12 months ended September 30th, 1907. The usual statistics give only the number of paupers on two specified dates

Children.

Great progress has been made in recent years in removing children from institutions in which they may be brought into dangerous contact with adult paupers. The establishment of cottage and scattered homes and of well-equipped poor-law schools has enabled an increasing number of children whom circumstances have thrown into the Guardians' care to be brought up amid healthy surroundings, with nothing of the stigma which used to attach to a poor-law child.

The following table shows how this practice has grown in 12 years:—

| | 1899. | | 1911. | |
|---------------------------------------|--------|-----------|--------|-----------|
| | No. | Per cent. | No. | Per cent. |
| In workhouses, infirmaries, &c. . . . | 25,401 | 48.7 | 24,159 | 33.9 |
| In separate children's institutions | 19,532 | 37.4 | 35,952 | 50.4 |
| In Non-Poor Law institutions | 7,274 | 13.9 | 11,175 | 15.7 |

Omitting children under three years of age, 46,549 were in establishments separate from the workhouse, 5,134 were in infirmaries or infirm wards, and only 9,944 in workhouses proper.

In each year, January 1st and July 1st, and, though of great value for comparative purposes, they afford no real indication of the total extent of pauperism, as the following figures show:—

NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS RELIEVED IN A YEAR (INCLUDING LUNATICS AND CASUALS).

| | London. | Outside London. | Total. |
|---------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------|
| Men | 116,622 | 409,827 | 526,449 |
| Women | 113,126 | 505,547 | 618,673 |
| Children (under 16) | 109,508 | 454,806 | 564,314 |
| Totals | 339,256 | 1,370,180 | 1,709,436 |

Thus, roughly, one person in every 20 throughout England and Wales, and one person in every 14 in London alone received relief.

Further, it appeared that 538,680 formed a permanent pauper population relieved throughout the whole year, and that 198,009, or 11.5 per cent. of the whole, received relief which only lasted for one week.

THE NATURE OF RELIEF GIVEN.

| | Adults. | Children. | Total. | Per cent. of Population. |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|
| Indoor relief | 396,000 | 106,752 | 502,752 | 1.5 |
| Medical relief | 140,750 | 75,272 | 216,022 | 0.6 |
| Other outdoor relief | 555,560 | 363,925 | 919,485 | 2.6 |
| Indoor and outdoor relief at different times | 52,812 | 18,365 | 71,177 | 0.2 |
| | 1,145,122 | 564,314 | 1,709,436 | 4.9 |

(See also page 56.)

OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

The total numbers of pensions payable on the last Friday of June, 1911, were: England and Wales, 622,434 (£143,894); Scotland, 92,465 (£22,079); Ireland, 202,372 (£49,622). The total amount paid out by the Post Office on that particular day was £215,595, this figure being considerably below the average for the whole month—£220,313.

The removal of the pauper disqualification from the beginning of 1911 brought about a large increase of pensions. The total number of persons previously disqualified by the receipt of poor relief since January 1st, 1908, who were awarded pensions, payable as from the first Friday of the year, was—

| | |
|------------------------|---------|
| England and Wales..... | 135,385 |
| Scotland | 10,474 |
| Ireland | 17,306 |

163,163

It was stated by Mr. Hobhouse on March 8th that the total relief to the rates under the Old Age Pensions Act amounted to about two millions a year. The effect on the pauperism returns will be seen by reference to the table on page 256.

Guardians and Outdoor Relief.

Boards of Guardians are very closely controlled in granting out-relief by the rules laid down in Orders issued by the Local Government Board, which have practically the force of statutes. One of the most urgent recommendations of the Royal Commission was that these Orders, which varied for different Unions, should be consolidated and made uniform for the whole country. The Committee appointed for this purpose by Mr. John Burns published early in 1911 a report on the existing Orders, and drafted a new Outdoor Relief Order. Substantially three sets of regulations were found to be in force:—

1. **The Prohibitory Order**, which required that as a rule an able-bodied person should go into the workhouse before receiving relief.

2. **The Regulation Order**, which, while not excluding the "workhouse test," permitted the normal use of the less stringent "labour test."

3. **A Combined Prohibitory and Labour Test Order**, which allowed a labour test for male applicants for outdoor relief, but enforced the workhouse test for the majority of able-bodied.

274 Unions were under the Prohibitory Order, 254 under the Prohibitory and Labour Test Orders, and 116 under the Regulation Order.

The Committee adopted the Prohibitory Order as the basis of the new draft. The general rule is laid down that outdoor relief is not to be given except in cases of:—

The number of weekly pension orders actually paid by the Post Office authorities and the total cost for the two years ending March, 1910, and March, 1911, are shown by the following table:—

NUMBER AND RATES OF PENSION ORDERS CASHED.

| Rate of Pension. | No. of Old Age Pension Orders. | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|
| | 1909-10 | 1910-11 |
| 1/- | 309,067 | 280,991 |
| 2/- | 569,469 | 544,303 |
| 3/- | 1,182,800 | 1,163,379 |
| 4/- | 1,225,017 | 1,189,696 |
| 5/- | 31,881,630 | 36,777,473 |
| Total No. of weekly orders paid | 35,167,983 | 39,955,842 |
| Average per week | 676,307 | 768,381 |
| Total amount | £8,465,231 | £9,675,293 |

The Old Age Pensions Act, 1911, which came into operation 18th August, 1911, introduced some modifications in the conditions under which pensions are obtainable (see page 112).

(1) Sickness or infirmity, whether arising from old age or otherwise.

(2) A widow in the first six months of her widowhood or having a child dependent on her for support.

(3) Money granted to defray burial expenses.

(4) A married woman living apart from her husband.

The grant of relief other than medical assistance in case of **sickness or old age** is safeguarded by the condition that a doctor's certificate must first be obtained. The Guardians are specifically forbidden to pay a pauper's rent, or to establish him in business, or to purchase or redeem from pawn his tools, and a limit of five weeks is laid down as the period during which relief may be granted without the case coming up for reconsideration.

Under exceptional circumstances, the **modified workhouse test** by which outdoor assistance is granted to a man's wife and family whilst he remains in the workhouse, and the **Outdoor Labour Test**, under which the Guardians may grant relief in money and kind to a man who whilst out of employment works at tasks arranged by the Guardians, may be put into operation.

Further, every Board of Guardians is ordered to establish a system of case papers by which more satisfactory and complete records of applicants for relief may be kept.

The Order awaits the signature of the President of the Local Government Board before coming into force.

[While this book was in the press extensive changes in the methods of poor law relief in London were foreshadowed. The removal of the management of casual wards from Boards of Guardians lies within the discretion of the Local Government Board. The central control of vagrants (see p. 259) is a step towards the unification of London for Poor Law purposes, a scheme for which is now understood to be in preparation.]

THE RELIEF OF THE POOR.

The Practice of Foreign Countries.

The appendix volume of the Report of the Poor Law Commission (Cd. 5441), which deals with foreign and colonial systems of relief, is of very great value, though it is discouraging to find that with perhaps one or two exceptions no country has yet succeeded in devising a poor law system which is considered satisfactory.

Three marked tendencies are observable. In all countries there is a movement to spread the responsibilities and burden of relief over a wider area than that of the commune or other small unit of administration.

Secondly, greater insistence is being laid on the classification of poor persons, and on discrimination in treatment between the various classes. Particularly is this the case with regard to the very old and to children.

Thirdly, increasing attention is being given to the prevention of destitution. The schemes of State insurance which Germany, to her honour, initiated have been imitated in principle or in detail by various other European governments.

Systems of relief may be divided into two classes:—

(i) Those in which the community recognises a public obligation to relieve the necessitous, and provides money and an adequate organisation, such as obtain in the United Kingdom, Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, United States, and New Zealand.

(ii) Those in which relief is essentially a matter of grace or charity, as in France, Belgium, Italy, Holland, and most of the Australian States.

It is to be remarked that there are evidences of a gradual breakdown of the second class. In some cases, as in Australia, the State has been compelled to supplement charitable relief for some classes of poor persons; in others, as in France, where the charitable system is admitted to have quite broken down, a scheme of organised relief administered by local governing bodies has been superimposed by the Legislature.

The right to relief is generally recognised even in countries where the system is based on charity, but a certain qualifying degree of poverty is usually demanded. In Germany and Scandinavia this is practically equivalent to the English term "destitution." France requires each commune to fix a standard minimum of the cost of living, and relief to this standard is allowed to destitute applicants. In Paris it has been fixed as high as £1. 4s. a month. In practically all cases relatives, or the pauper, if his circumstances change, are liable to refund the cost of relief. But in Belgium a child has no obligation towards its parent, nor is a person who has received relief ever liable to repay.

The Poor Law Authority.—English

Boards of Guardians—directly elected ad hoc authorities, with unlimited power to call on the rates and subject only to supervision by the central government—are without parallel abroad. There are two main forms of public authority.

The first is a committee nominated by the local civil authority with certain ex-officio members, such as the mayor or the parish priest. This is to be found in those countries where relief is chiefly charitable, e.g., France and Belgium. The second is the local civil authority itself (e.g., the communal council in Germany or the town meeting in the United States) acting usually through expert officers.

The actual administration of relief is, on the whole, much more bureaucratic on the Continent than in Great Britain. Officials usually have the right to decide whether or not relief shall be given, without supervision by a committee. The defects of the official and bureaucratic system are, however, now generally recognised, and there are distinct traces of a widespread tendency to humanise relief by reducing the amount of officialism. This is to be observed in France, where voluntary "dames visiteuses" undertake all necessary enquiries; in Belgium, where the care of all children relieved is entrusted to voluntary "comités de patronage," and in Germany, where the famous Elberfeld system, which imposes the obligation of rendering unpaid service in poor law administration on all citizens, is widely spreading.

Children.—Methods of dealing with destitute children vary from country to country. Boarding out is the most popular system for providing for orphans and deserted children. Tendencies to be found in British legislation are also to be observed in other countries. Thus (i.) the needs of the child are increasingly held to be the predominant factor. Parental obligation and authority are coming to be regarded as quite secondary. (ii.) The care of the children is more and more becoming a matter of national instead of merely local concern.

The Able-bodied.—There is little evidence of any coherent plan for dealing with the difficult problem of the able-bodied poor, a class which ranges from the "workshy" and vagrant to the genuinely unemployed artisan. Stringent measures for dealing with the former are becoming more general. Germany, Belgium, Holland, and Scandinavia put their faith in penal labour colonies for men of this class. Of another type are the Dutch voluntary labour colonies, a French "colonie agricole," and various farm colonies established in New South Wales, where systematic attempts are made to train unemployed men for agricultural work.

VAGRANTS AND THE HOMELESS POOR.

At the request of a Mansion House Meeting, held at the beginning of the year, under the Presidency of the Lord Mayor, the **Social Welfare Association for London** constituted a committee to deal with the question of the **homeless and vagrants of London** by means of co-operative action between the public authorities and voluntary agencies. The following are the present members of this committee:—

Mr. J. S. Oxley, the Local Government Board's Chief Inspector for the Metropolitan District (chairman); Sir Arthur Downes, M.D., of the Local Government Board; Mr. W. H. Beveridge, of the Board of Trade; Mr. Basil Thomson, of the Prison Commission; Mr. G. H. Edwards, of the Metropolitan Police; representatives of the Church Army, Barnardo's Home, Mendicity Society, Thames Embankment Relief Fund, the Social Welfare Association for London, and other charitable bodies.

The committee arrived at the conclusion that there should be joint action among the voluntary agencies, poor law authorities, and the police, so that any homeless person may be sent to a casual ward within easy reach, with a view to being passed on, if found suitable, to voluntary agencies, and that

the police should deal with those refusing such assistance. If, on investigation, it appears that the police have not sufficient power to enable this proposal to be carried out, the Home Office should be urged to promote the necessary legislation.

The first step towards carrying into effect this principle is the establishment of a system of registration of habitual vagrants. The Local Government Board has now authorised experimentally the institution of a register of those casuals who are identified by their officers as habitual vagrants, and charitable agencies are being invited to contribute records of such persons as it appears desirable should be registered. As a result, the habitual vagrant will become known both to the poor law authorities and to the voluntary agencies; the deserving and helpable cases will be separated from the wastrel who can never be helped to permanent independence, and imposition will be prevented. The voluntary agencies should assist adequately every homeless person who is capable of being helped; the undeserving and hopeless case must be left to the poor law to deal with.

A POOR-LAW REFORM COMPROMISE.

The County Councils' Scheme.

The County Councils Association—a body representative of nearly all the County Councils of England and Wales—early in 1911 published the results of an attempt on the part of some of our most experienced local administrators to combine the good points of both Majority and Minority Reports into a sound and workable plan.

They first state their conclusions:—

- (i.) The whole system of Poor-Law administration needs re-organisation.
- (ii.) The present units of area presided over by Boards of Guardians are too small, and should be abolished.
- (iii.) The proper authority for Poor-Law work is the County Council or County Borough Council.
- (iv.) All Poor-Law schools should be under the Education Committee.
- (v.) The unemployed, including habitual vagrants, should be under a Government department.
- (vi.) All mentally defective persons (*i.e.*, idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded, or epileptics) should be released from the stigma of pauperism, and placed under the control of a Government department, responsible also for lunacy.

Next dealing with machinery, they propose to establish a **statutory committee of the County Council** (similar to the Education Committee) for Poor-Law Work, composed of:—

- (1) Members of the County and District Councils within the area.
- (2) Other persons, some of whom must be women nominated by the County

Council on the ground of experience in Poor-Law and charitable work, but so that there is always a majority of County Council and District Council members.

The duties of this committee will be:—

- (i.) To classify and control all existing and future Poor-Law institutions in the area.
- (ii.) To administer the Poor-Law funds and to control all contracts over £100.
- (iii.) To control the appointment of all officers.

In addition to this, there will be set up in each urban or rural district a subordinate **District Poor-Law Board**, composed of:—

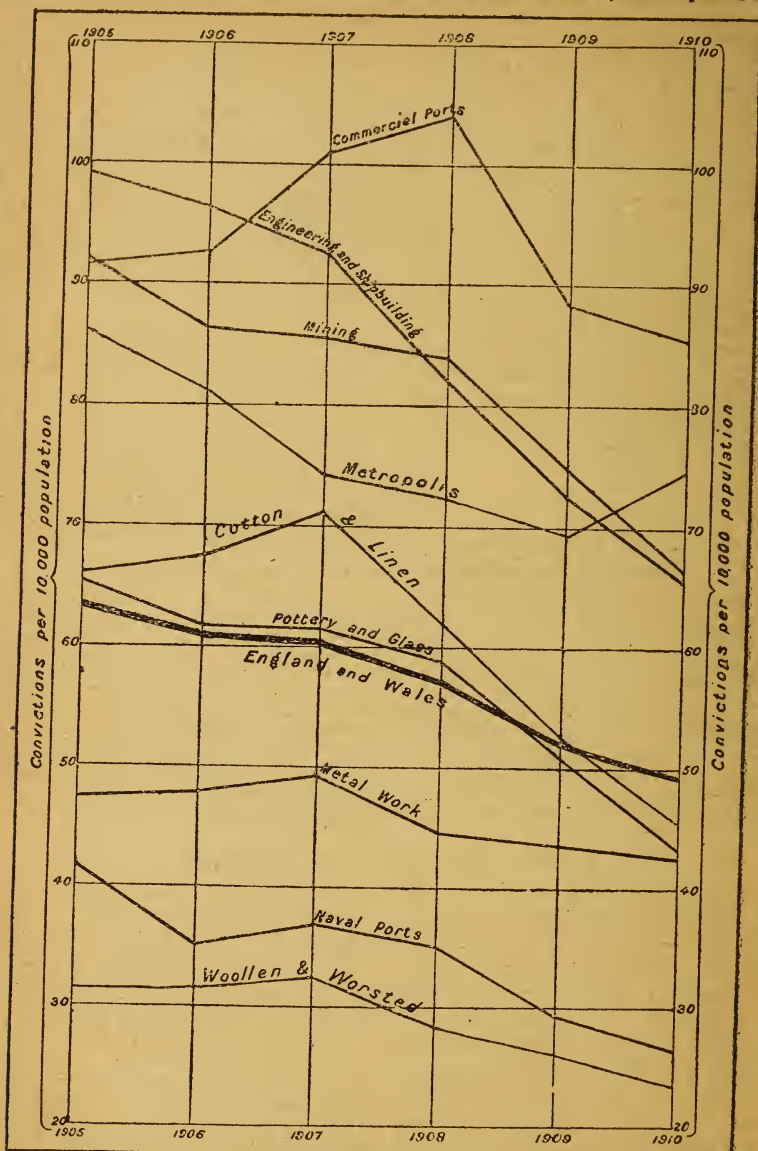
- (1) Members of the County Council elected for or resident in the area.
- (2) A certain number of district councillors.
- (3) A proportion, not greater than one-quarter of persons experienced in Poor-Law or charitable work nominated by the County Council.

The chief duty of these bodies will be to supervise Out-Relief under general rules laid down by Parliament.

Finance will be under the control of the whole County Council, and a single rate will be levied for Poor-Law purposes over the whole area.

The scheme is not intended to apply to London nor to large urban areas, but so far as it goes it has been accepted as a reasonable compromise by the leading supporters of both the Majority and Minority Reports.

CONVICTIONS FOR DRUNKENNESS, 1905-10.
In England and Wales, in London, in Commercial and Naval
Ports, and certain Manufacturing Districts, compared.



THE DECLINE IN DRUNKENNESS.

Licensing Statistics for 1910.

On January 1st, 1910, there were in England and Wales 92,484 on-licenses and 24,438 off-licenses, giving proportions of 25·84 on-licenses and 6·83 off-licenses (together 32·67 licensed premises) per 10,000 persons.

The number of on-licenses shows a continuation of the decrease which has been in progress for a considerable period, and is less by 1,561 than the number for January 1st, 1909.

| Year. | On-Licenses. | Year. | On-Licenses. |
|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
| 1895 | 103,341 | 1905 | 99,478 |
| 1897 | 102,838 | 1907 | 97,554 |
| 1899 | 102,501 | 1908 | 95,517 |
| 1901 | 101,940 | 1909 | 94,045 |
| 1903 | 100,766 | 1910 | 92,484 |

The proportion of off-licenses per 10,000 of the estimated population, which was 7·47 in 1905, fell to 6·83 last year.

There were 7,536 registered clubs on January 1st, 1910, representing an increase of 213 over the previous year. The appended table shows the growth of clubs since the system of registration came into full operation:—

| Year. | Clubs. | Year. | Clubs. |
|------------|--------|------------|--------|
| 1904 | 6,371 | 1908 | 7,133 |
| 1905 | 6,539 | 1909 | 7,323 |
| 1906 | 6,721 | 1910 | 7,536 |
| 1907 | 6,907 | | |

It is not true that clubs are increasing so fast as public-houses are

decreasing, but there appears to be a steady increase of between 2 and 3 per cent. each year.

With regard to compensation, 1,294 cases were referred during last year by the renewal authorities, and in 962 of these the compensation authorities decided to refuse the renewal of the licenses. In 1909 the refusals were 1,401. The figures for 1910 are the lowest since 1906. The licenses which were paid for in 1910 cost on an average £891. 2s. 2d. each (£887. 3s. 10d. each for 439 full licenses and £894. 4s. 8d. each for 550 beerhouse licenses). Of the 550 beerhouse licenses 538 were "ante-1869" licenses. The average amounts paid during each of the last six years were:—

| Year. | Full Licenses. | Beerhouse Licenses. |
|------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 1905 | £717 12 2 | £568 15 0 |
| 1906 | 721 10 5 | 687 16 6 |
| 1907 | 1,009 8 8 | 876 6 7 |
| 1908 | 1,116 0 11 | 926 1 9 |
| 1909 | 914 6 4 | 819 16 2 |
| 1910 | 887 3 10 | 894 4 8 |

The average price paid per license varied in different compensation areas from about £135 in Radnor to £2,750 (one license) in Middlesbrough. The total amount received by the compensation authorities in 1910 was £734,325. 12s. 10d.

Increasing Sobriety of Industrial Towns.

Taking the country as a whole, the downward movement in convictions for drunkenness continued in 1910, though at a slower pace. There were 161,992 convictions, as compared with 169,518 in the previous year—a drop of 7,526, or 4·44 per cent. While the decrease is spread all over the country, the Metropolitan police district shows a total of 48,447 convictions, representing an increase of 7·91 per cent.

The convictions of females for drunkenness bore in 1910 a lower proportion to the total than they did in previous years.

The diagram on the opposite page shows how drunkenness has declined in the various districts. London forms an unenviable exception to the general improvement with convictions amounting to 74 per thousand. The commercial ports, which in 1908 showed convictions of more than 1 in 10 of the population, show a great decline in drunkenness. Figures show that the engineering and shipbuilding trades, with the allied occupations, and the mining population are steadily becoming more sober.

*LIFE ON £1 A WEEK.

Mr. B. Seebohm Rowntree, in an article on "The Industrial Unrest," in the "Contemporary Review" for Oct., 1911, discussed the almost impossible task of supporting a decent family existence on the sort of wages usually paid for unskilled labour. The number of industrial workers (i.e., excluding agriculturists) is, he points out, according to Prof. Bowley's estimate, over one and a half million.

Judging from such other figures as are available, this estimate is certainly not exaggerated. An examination of wages in general reveals the fact that the number of low-paid workers is appallingly large.

"Now let us consider what kind of life is possible for men receiving such wages, if the money is carefully spent. Does the fact that millions of persons in Great Britain have lived on family incomes of about £1 a week, generation after generation, justify us in regarding their condition with complacency? Or are there valid reasons for the discontent of unskilled workers?"

First, then, it will cost 13s. 9d. a week to provide a family of two adults and three children with the nutriment necessary for physical efficiency,* even if we choose a dietary more stringently economical than that of any workhouse in England or Wales—one containing no butcher's meat, and

*These extracts appear by kind permission of Mr. Rowntree and the "Contemporary Review."

bacon only three times a week; where margarine is substituted for butter, and porridge and skim milk figure largely in place of the usual tea and bread and butter.

Add, say, 5s. for rent to the 13s. 9d. required for food, and we already get 18s. 9d., a wage higher than that of many an unskilled labourer. But we have not yet allowed anything for clothes, fuel, light, washing, or wear and tear. Careful enquiry has shown that with the utmost economy, and not a farthing allowed for finery, adequate clothing costs 6d. a week for adults and 5d. for children. This item, then, adds 2s. 3d. to our 18s. 9d., bringing the sum to a guinea. Coal may be put at 1s. 10d., and if we allow only 2d. a week per head for all household sundries, we get 23s. 8d. as the absolute minimum on which a family of five, paying 5s. for rent, can be maintained in a state of physical efficiency. It must be remembered that this sum allows nothing for sick clubs or trade unions, or beer or tobacco, or trams or travelling, or amusements or newspapers, or writing materials and stamps; and if an evening paper is bought, or the children have coppers given to them to go and see the "moving pictures," physical efficiency suffers. In the abstract, no one would wish to condemn a single family, especially if there were young children, to such a life; and yet it represents an *unattainable ideal* to the vast majority of those unskilled workers in England who have as many as three children dependent on them.

It may help the reader to realise more vividly the state of things I have been describing if I quote the remarks of an elderly working woman who has all her life struggled hard against overwhelming odds.

"Now, take Maggie, our Jack's wife—her that kept that Midget last winter. He's a labourer, you know, and he's a good fellow, and gives her all his wages—a pound a week regular. They've four children, all under twelve. Well, Maggie pays 4s. rent—you can hardly pay less with six of you—and she'd be better if she could give another shilling, and get a place with more fresh air and sunshine. Then there's coal; she gets a bag of coal at one-and-five-pence, and a sixpenny bag of cinders, and, with sticks, that runs you to full two shillings in the winter; and gas a penny a day. In the summer she uses less coal, but she cooks with gas, and its no saving, though you get the comfort of it. Then there's club and insurance—one-and-a-penny a week I think she pays. Twelve shillings left for food and soap and repairs. She gets through plenty of soap and darning

*This calculation is based on Atwater's estimate of the amount of food necessary for a man engaged in "moderate work," viz., 125 grams of protein and 3,500 calories of fuel energy per man per day. The allowance for women is four-fifths of this, and for children according to age.

cotton, and Jack will mend the children's shoes if ever he can buy a cheap bit of leather. But it's just here—even if she never spends a penny on clothing, it's a scrape through at the end of the week. It's short fares all round. Most of the mornings Jack takes his breakfast to work with him—tea and bread, and a bit of bacon or a sausage, same as the other men. But Thursday and Friday he comes home to breakfast like clockwork, because there's nothing but bread, and he's ashamed of it before his mates. They're men with wives or children earning, and so they're better off. But on Saturday he's all right again, with his bacon, and Maggie and the children have the drip; it flavours the bread like. Now it stands to reason that when Maggie buys anything in the way of shoes for the children, she got to pinch somewhere else, and she can't pinch on rent, nor on fire unless you've plenty of warm things. *The clothing comes off the food, there's nothing else to take it from*

MAGGIE'S BUDGET FOR FOUR WEEKS.

| Income:— | £ s. d. |
|-------------------------------------|---------|
| Man's wage (£1 a week) | 4 0 0 |
| Expenditure:— | |
| Food (including beverages) | 2 0 0 |
| Rent (4s. a week) | 0 16 0 |
| Fuel and light | 0 10 2 |
| Clothing and boots | 0 6 8 |
| Washing and cleaning materials .. | 0 2 1 |
| Life Insurance | 0 4 4 |
| Cotton and Worsteds for mending .. | 0 0 4 |
| Given to children for Martimas Fair | 0 0 4 |
| | £4 0 0 |

PURCHASES FOR ONE WEEK.

Friday.—Gas 1d., blacklead 1d., 1lb. of pig's fry 2½d., ½ stone potatoes 2½d.

Saturday.—1lb. tea 9d.,* 5lbs. sugar 1s.,* 1 pint milk 1½d., 1lb. coffee† 2d., 1lb. butter 8d., 1lb. meat pieces 4d., gas 1d., 1lb. cheese 2d., 1½ stones flour 2s. 6d., 1 pair children's boots 2s. 6d., 1 stone potatoes 5d., 1 bag coals and cinders 1s. 9d., paraffin 1d., 3lbs. beef (brisket 1s. 6d., 1lb. brussels sprouts 1½d., life insurance 1s. 1d., 1lb. fried fish and chips 2d., 1lb. bacon‡ 10d.

Sunday.—Gas 1d.

Monday.—Gas 1d., rent 4s.

Tuesday.—Gas 1d.

Wednesday.—Gas 1d., 1lb. soap 3d., washing powder 1d., starch 1d., blue 1½d., 1lb. liver 2d., 1lb. pigs' chitterlings 1½d.

Thursday.—Gas 1d., 1lb. fish pieces 3d.

An examination of this family's dietary shows that the energy value is 24 per cent. and the protein 37 per cent. below the standard requirements. *In other words, the family is only obtaining from two-thirds to three-quarters of the food necessary for its maintenance in full physical efficiency.*

*Two week's supply at least.

†Largely composed of chicory.

‡One week's supply.

£1,000 for a Safety Lamp.

In May the Home Office announced that, in order to encourage the production of safe and efficient types of electric lamps for miners, a colliery proprietor had offered a prize of £1,000 for

the best lamp submitted by December 31st, 1911. Various requirements as to simplicity of construction, safety, and strength of light (2-candle power for a minimum of 10 hours per charge) are laid down, and, in addition, attention will be paid to cheapness and weight.

SECTION XV.—THE CHURCHES.

THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

Appld.
 1903 *Canterbury*, Randall Thomas Davidson, P.C., G.C.V.O., D.D., b. 1848. *Consec. Bishop of Rochester*
 1891; *transl. to Winchester* 1895.
 1909 *York*, Cosmo Gordon Lang, P.C., D.D., b. 1864. *Consecrated Bishop of Stepney* y 1901.

Bishops with Seats in the House of Lords (24).

| | |
|---|--|
| 1901 <i>London</i> , Rt.Hn.A.F.W.-Ingram, D.D., b. 1858 | 1898 <i>Bangor</i> , Watkin H. Williams, D.D., b. 1845 |
| 1901 <i>Durham</i> , H. C. Glyn Moule, D.D., b. 1841 | 1900 <i>Liverpool</i> , Francis Jas. Chavasse, D.D., b. 1846 |
| 1911 <i>Winchester</i> , Ed. Stuart Talbot, D.D., b. 1814 | 1911 <i>Oxford</i> , Charles Gore, D.D., b. 1853 |
| 1889 <i>Chester</i> , Francis John Jayne, D.D., b. 1845 | 1903 <i>Exeter</i> , Archibald Robertson, D.D., b. 1853 |
| 1889 <i>St. Asaph</i> , Alfred Geo. Edwards, D.D., b. 1848 | 1903 <i>Manchester</i> , E. Arbuthnot Knox, D.D., b. 1847 |
| 1891 <i>Lichfield</i> , Hon. Augustus Legge, D.D., b. 1839 | 1904 <i>Southwell</i> , Edwyn Hoskyns, D.D., b. 1851 |
| 1894 <i>Bath & Wells</i> , Geo. W. Kennion, D.D., b. 1845 | 1905 <i>Carlisle</i> , John Wm. Diggle, D.D., b. 1847 |
| 1895 <i>Hereford</i> , John Percival, D.D., b. 1834 | 1905 <i>Worcester</i> , Huyshe W.Y.-Bliggs, D.D., b. 1845 |
| 1903 <i>St. Albans</i> , Edgar Jacob, D.D., b. 1844 | 1905 <i>Gloucester</i> , Edgar C. S. Gibsop, D.D., b. 1848 |
| 1897 <i>Peterboro'</i> , Hon. Ed. Carr Glyn, D.D., b. 1843 | |
| 1897 <i>St. David's</i> , John Owen, D.D., b. 1854 | 1905 <i>Llandaff</i> , Josh. Pritchard Hughes, D.D., b. 1847 |
| 1897 <i>Bristol</i> , Geo. Forrest Browne, D.D., b. 1833 | 1911 <i>Ripon</i> ,* |
| 1897 <i>Wakefield</i> , Geo. Rodney Eden, D.D., b. 1853 | |

Without present Seats (11, incl. Sodor and Man).

| | |
|---|--|
| 1905 <i>Ely</i> , Frederic Henry Chase, D.D., b. 1854 | 1910 <i>Lincoln</i> , Edward Lee Hicks, D.D., b. 1843 |
| 1906 <i>Truro</i> , Chas. Wm. Stubbs, D.D., b. 1845 | 1911 <i>Birmingham</i> , H. R. Wakfield, D.D., b. 1854 |
| 1907 <i>Newcastle</i> , Norman D.J. Straton, D.D., b. 1840 | 1911 <i>Salisbury</i> , Fred. Ed. Ridgeway, D.D., b. 1848 |
| 1907 <i>Chichester</i> , Chas. Jno. Ridgeway, D.D., b. 1842 | 1911 <i>Southwark</i> , Hub. Murray Burge, D.D., b. 1862 |
| 1910 <i>Norwich</i> , B. Pollock, D.D., C.V.O., b. 1863 | No vote <i>Sodor & Man</i> , Thos. W. Drury, D.D., b. 1848 |

STATISTICS OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND FOR
YEAR ENDING EASTER, 1910.

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Churches at which services are held.. | 21,032 |
| Incumbents | 13,915 |
| Ordinations | 672 |
| Licensed readers, paid deaconesses, &c. | 5,801 |
| Unpaid district visitors | 74,009 |
| Easter Communicants | 2,283,044 |
| Baptisms | 591,281 |
| Sunday School teachers | 215,354 |
| Sunday School scholars | 2,518,918 |

Seating accommodation—

| | |
|--------------------|-----------|
| Appropriated | 1,163,062 |
| Free | 6,079,124 |

Total seating accommodation.. 7,242,186

Clerical Income—

| | |
|---|------------|
| Beneficed clergy | £3,932,858 |
| Assistant clergy | 1,083,204 |
| (Including £232,945 paid by incumbents personally to assistant clergy.) | |

Church Endowments, and Voluntary Offerings.

There is no later official information on the magnitude and distribution of the Church of England's income from property than a Parliamentary return of 1891. Thus:—

| Property. | Bishops | Cathedral Bodies. | Parish Clergy. | Eccles. Comm. | Total. |
|--------------------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------|---------------|-----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Tithes | 21,503 | 44,384 | 2,628,874 | 273,591 | 2,968,352 |
| Lands | 61,508 | 98,027 | 991,212 | 219,660 | 1,371,107 |
| Houses, ground rents, &c. | 1,656 | 38,673 | 132,626 | 391,570 | 564,525 |
| Minerals | — | 903 | 5,111 | 263,841 | 269,855 |
| Dividends, &c. | 14,241 | 10,473 | 200,617 | 99,165 | 324,496 |
| *Other payments | — | — | 255,222 | — | 255,222 |
| | £ 98,908 | 192,460 | 4,213,662 | 1,247,827 | 5,753,557 |

* By Queen Anne's Bounty and the Ecclesiastical Commissioners.

The greater part of the permanent income of the Church of England is derived from **tithe rent charges, from lands and from investments**. There is no contribution from the National Exchequer to the upkeep of the Established Church. It has, indeed, been argued strongly that tithes, &c., are really national property; but legally, at all events, the right to tithe is as much the real property of the holder,

whether he be clergyman or layman, as land or houses would be.

Originating in the old Mosaic custom of devoting one-tenth of a man's income to religious purposes, the custom was eventually enforced by law, and for centuries the tithe receiver obtained one-tenth of the produce of cultivated lands, of the natural increase of the cattle, and of whatever was made in the dairy.

* Dr. Boyd Carpenter has expressed his intention of resigning.

By the Tithe Commutation Act of 1836, a money payment was substituted for what had previously been given in kind. This payment is called a tithe rent-charge. The sum paid is that which would purchase now a quantity of wheat, oats, or barley equal to that which could have been purchased in December, 1836, with the amount then paid for tithes. Necessarily, the payment fluctuates in amount with the varying price of grain; but the cost of wheat, barley, and oats is reckoned on a seven years' average. For 1911, the value of a tithe rent-charge of £100 is £70. 19s. 1d.

The income of the *Ecclesiastical Commissioners* is applied to the payment of the salaries of various Bishops, &c., and to the endowment and augmentation of poor benefices in populous areas. *Queen Anne's*

Bounty is similarly used for the augmentation of benefices insufficiently endowed.

Of the total gross income £5,469,171 was returned as being derived from ancient endowments, and the remainder £284,386 from private benefactions since 1703.

This amount, however, does not represent the total income of the Church. Among other items, *pew-rents*, which probably produced quite £300,000, are not included. But most important are the *voluntary offerings* which for the year ending Easter, 1910, reached a total of nearly 8 millions.

These were allocated as follows:—

| | |
|---|------------|
| General purposes (philanthropic societies, mission work, &c.) | £2,721,936 |
| Parochial purposes (clergy, education, &c.) | 5,190,816 |
| Total | £7,912,752 |

Free Church Figures.

A good deal of interest was aroused during 1911 by the publication in the "Westminster Gazette" of the statistics for two successive years of the Free Churches. These showed that there had been in nearly every case a considerable decline in membership. Exceptions were the Presbyterians, the Churches of Christ, the Society of Friends, all of which showed some increase. The Established Church showed an increase in the number of communicants, but some shrinkage in the annual confirmation returns. A comparison of the figures given below with those supplied in earlier issues of the "Daily News Year Book" will illustrate the matter in detail.

Commenting on the figures, the writer in the "Westminster Gazette" pointed out that two at least of the great Nonconformist Churches received large permanent addi-

tions to their membership through the Welsh Revival of 1906. There are special factors to account for the apparent decrease in the Baptist and Wesleyan Methodist communities.

The uncertainty in the Methodist Church about the eventual retention of attendance at the Class-meeting as the criterion of membership undoubtedly affects Methodist statistics. The Baptist and Congregationalist Churches suffer from the small stipends paid in small communities to the pastors.

A more general cause of disturbance which has seriously affected the Free Church statistics as a whole is the migration in many cases of the more prosperous members of the rural Nonconformist communities to the big towns.

The Free Churches and the Church of Scotland, 1910-11.

| | Ministers. | Evangelists, etc. | Churches, Halls, etc. | Seating Accommodation. | Church Members. | | |
|---|------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| | | | | | No. | Inc. or Decr. in 1908-9. | Sunday School Scholars. |
| Presbyterian Church of England | 352 | — | 364 | 175,212 | 86,808 | + 387 | 86,015 |
| Church of Scotland | 1,521 | 220 | 1,707 | — | 714,039 | + 11,964 | 234,980 |
| United Free Church of Scotland | 1,700 | — | 1,621* | — | 506,693 | + 105 | 240,619 |
| Free Church of Scotland | 90 | 100 | 189 | — | — | — | — |
| Congregational Union of England and Wales | 2,932 | 5,438 | 4,932 | 1,718,488 | 493,580 | + 34,443 | 668,095 |
| Baptist Union | 2,132 | 5,692 | 4,146 | 1,402,648 | 418,680 | — 5,328 | 676,448 |
| Independent Methodist Church | 413 | — | 159 | 45,395 | 9,035 | — 407 | 27,747 |
| Wesleyan Methodist Church | 2,455 | 19,578 | 16,994 | 2,393,316 | 488,463 | — 32,405 | 980,165 |
| Primitive Methodist Church | 1,192 | 16,241 | 5,136 | 1,033,401 | 211,691 | — 477 | 470,039 |
| United Methodist Church | 895 | 6,239 | 2,921 | 750,075 | 146,715 | — 40,190 | 309,649 |
| Wesleyan Reform Church | 21 | 520 | 195 | 48,875 | 8,866* | — 123 | 21,754 |
| Calvinistic Methodist Church | 976 | 344 | — | 679,897 | 184,588 | — 778 | 189,308 |
| Society of Friends (a) | 357 | — | 402 | — | 19,522 | — 1,964 | 27,929 |
| Moravian Church | 53 | 3** | 60 | 10,000 | 3,803 | — 2,654 | 4,877 |
| Salvation Army | — | 15,993 | 8,972 | 508,500 | — | — | — |
| Unitarians | 378 | — | 374 | — | — | — | — |

* Congregations. ** Paid only. (a) Including Australasia.

† This column is obtained by a comparison of the above figures with those which appeared in the "Daily News Year Book," 1910.

The Roman Catholic Church has 25 archbishops and bishops, 4,302 priests, and 2,167 churches, with an average accommodation of about 400 in England and Wales.

There are 171 Jewish synagogues and congregations, with 20,513 seatholders. The total number of Jews in the British Isles is estimated at 242,525.

The P.S.A. Brotherhood Movement.

Thirty years ago, the realisation of the growing disinclination of the average man to attend the ordinary church and chapel services brought the earliest P.S.A. Brotherhoods into existence. In 1893, the first P.S.A. National Conference was held. To-day the National Brotherhood Council can point with pride to about 2,200 societies with over 425,000 members, to the steady growth of the work each year, and to its extension not only into all parts of the British Isles, but to France and other continental countries. Indeed, it has reached the dignity of an international movement, and a conference of delegates from various parts of Europe will be held in Switzerland in 1913. Its object is to bring the influence of Christianity not only into the personal life of the individual man, but also into his relations as a man and as a citizen with his fellow-men. The familiar Sunday afternoon service, brief and bright, in which subjects of current interest are discussed from the Christian point of view, is only one of the methods adopted. Institutes for social fellowship and benevolent clubs assist towards two important aims of the movement—the union of men in brotherhoods of mutual help, and the enforcement of the obligations of Christian citizenship.

The Church of England Men's Society

In the twelfth year of its existence, the Church of England Men's Society can justly congratulate itself that the work of the Church at home and abroad is now federated as it has never been before. The Society has been able to supply a vision of the "oneness" of churchmen throughout the world such as no parochial or sectional movement has ever produced, and almost silently, with scarcely any publicity or effort, an army of 112,000 members, divided into 4,081 companies. Most of these are in England and has been recruited within the Church. Wales, but Australia and Tasmania possess 274 branches, New Zealand has 108, and Africa 62. 787 new branches were added during last year. The C.E.M.S. has already impressed its mark on the life of the Church. A new spirit has arisen. The proverbial apathy of the Anglican layman has disappeared. The keen enthusiasm of the founders of this essentially democratic movement has infected the whole work of the Church. The laity are claiming and obtaining an increasing share in administration, and abuses and difficulties which for generations had sapped the vitality of her work are being squarely faced and overcome. At the same time, the simple pledge of prayer, communion, and personal service has infused new energy into her spiritual life.

TOWARDS EDUCATIONAL PEACE.

The Educational Settlement Committee's Bill.

The Educational Settlement Committee was formed in November, 1908, by Prof. Sadler, C.B., Mr. T. Edmund Harvey, M.P., Sir Thomas Acland, and others, numbering well over a thousand in all, to bring about educational peace by agreement between the various denominations. After two years' work, the Committee has framed its conclusions in the shape of a Parliamentary Bill, which was backed by Mr. Harvey, M.P., Mr. Chas. Bathurst, M.P., and Col. Williams, M.P., and was introduced in the House of Commons in July last.

The Bill seeks to make Council schools under public control accessible to all children of school age, by facilitating the transfer of voluntary or denominational schools wherever accommodation in a Council school is not already available. The terms of such transfer would be left to agreement between the local education authority and the trustees under a provisional time limit of two years. Failing agreement, a Council school would have to be built, and the trustees could either divert their buildings to some other purpose within the scope of their trust, or could continue their elementary school without maintenance from the rates.

The Bill, however, provides for the

maintenance of existing voluntary schools where a Council school is also within reach, and also secures attention to the wishes of parents as to the recognition of new voluntary schools. The Bill would greatly strengthen the position which all teachers "enjoy" under the present law. Religious tests would be for ever abolished, and in no case would the teachers' salaries be either enhanced or diminished because they gave or did not give religious instruction, or because they served in a voluntary instead of a Council school.

Subject to these safeguards and to the protection of the conscience clause, religious instruction would be secured for all children in Council schools, and for all students in training colleges. As in Mr. Runciman's scheme of 1908, the Bill proposes to improve the giving and supervision of religious instruction by the establishment under each Local Education Authority of a Religious Instruction Committee including people of experience in the religious education of boys and girls.

The Executive which framed the Bill, like the Committee itself, includes Churchmen, Nonconformists, and Jews, and the administrative experience of local authorities and of the National Union of Teachers was strongly represented.

R. C. DAVISON.

A CHURCH SCHEME.

Concurrently with the promotion of the Education Settlement Committee's scheme, a solution of the religious question in public elementary schools was put forward in a letter addressed by Lord Salisbury to "The Times." The scheme embodied the views of a committee of the Canterbury House of Laymen, a sub-committee of the National Society, and a Diocesan Committee in Birmingham, to which representatives from Lancashire and South Wales were admitted.

The supporters of the scheme express the opinion that the religious difficulty where education is compulsory can only be met by leaving the solution in the hands of the parents. They propose to maintain the dual system of Voluntary and Council schools. But within that framework, the scheme provides that all parents of whatever persuasion should be asked to state what form of religious instruction they require for their children, and that, unless the parents requiring any particular form are very few in number, the school authorities shall make provision for such instruction, and it lies with the denominational authorities to see that this instruction is in the hands

of the teachers competent to give it. It is made incumbent upon the Education Authorities and Managers to do their best to co-operate with the scheme by appointing suitable teachers; yet in the Council schools no teacher is to be compelled to give any form of religious instruction, and no teacher is to suffer pecuniarily whether he does so or not. If there is no staff teacher qualified to give the kind of religious instruction desired, recourse must be had to outside assistance. The special character of denominational schools is safeguarded by a clause giving the managers powers to reserve accommodation for children whose parents are adherents of the denomination concerned.

In the course of a cautious letter approving this scheme, the Archbishop of Canterbury said: "We may well have before us at the same time more than one fair and reasonable plan, and it is, I suppose, impossible in the present condition of matters to construct any scheme which is wholly free from objection, or which will not press hardly upon certain groups of parents, of teachers, or of children."

THE SECULAR SOLUTION.

BY HERBERT BURROWS.

Since the passing of Mr. W. E. Forster's Education Act in 1870, which a large number of people hoped would settle the "religious difficulty" in elementary schools, the question of Secular Education has more or less agitated the public mind. It was felt by many citizens, orthodox and unorthodox, that Unsectarianism or the idea of a "common Christianity" was no real solution of the difficulty, inasmuch as it failed to satisfy either the religious or non-religious people, who object to the State having any official connection with the teaching of religion, especially in the matter of education. In late years, neither Mr. Balfour's Education Act nor the Bills of Mr. McKenna and Mr. Runciman were in the least degree satisfactory.

The basic principle of the Secular Education League is that while the best secular education, in which all citizens are equally concerned, should be the care of the whole community and supported and paid for by all, religious education, which involves the clash and quarrel of creeds, should be entirely a private matter, and, if given at all, should be given by the churches as private institutions outside the schools, and by the parents of the children. It is unfair to tax citizens of all creeds or no creeds for the support of religious teachings on which there can be no common agreement.

The ordinary objection to the abolition of religious teaching in State schools is that such abolition will mean the elimination of God and the Bible and the substitution of Atheism. The membership of the Secular Education League is composed of Anglicans, Nonconformists, clergymen, laymen, Secularists, and Atheists. A committee, composed of representatives of all these classes, was appointed by the League to draw up a statement of its position, which should explain that position to the "conscientious objector." The statement includes the following:—

"The Secular Education League neither professes nor entertains any hostility to religion. It simply regards religion as a personal and private matter, which all should be free to promote in voluntary associations, but which should never come under the control of the State. The League takes its stand on the principle of citizenship, with freedom and equality for all in matters that lie beyond."

The supporters of the League believe that if the principles of Secular Education be fairly and thoroughly carried out nationally the country will gain immeasurably by the complete abolition of the religious education difficulty and the increased impetus which will be given to the training of the children in the best principles of moral citizenship.

SECTION XVI.—LAND.

FISHING RIGHTS IN INLAND WATERS.

The Wye Fishery Case.

(HARRIS AND ANOTHER v. EARL OF CHESTERFIELD AND ANOTHER.)

This action was commenced in July, 1906, by the Earl of Chesterfield and Mr. Foster, as riparian owners of the River Wye, claiming the exclusive rights of fishing in the river. The defendants were freeholders of five parishes abutting on the river, and claimed to be entitled to a free fishery or common of fishery not only for personal consumption but to an unlimited extent for commercial purposes. Mr. Justice Neville decided in favour of the defendants; the Court of Appeal in July, 1908, reversed that decision, and the House of Lords on July 17th, 1911, upheld the Court of Appeal by a majority of four (Lords Halsbury, Macnaghten, Kinnear, Gorell) to three (The Lord Chancellor, Lords Ashbourne and Shaw). The Lord Chancellor said that it was proved beyond doubt that the freeholders had fished for centuries, "not by stealth or indulgence, but openly continuously as of right and without interruption." From documents as far back as 1292 it was probable that a fishery in the River Wye belonged to the freeholders as such. When a long and continuous enjoyment is established a lawful origin will be presumed if it is reasonably possible. It was the Court's duty

in this case to presume a lawful origin. The alternative was that the freeholders had been poachers for all these centuries. That would be the most violent presumption he had ever heard of. Lord Gorell, giving judgment for the majority, held that an unlimited commercial right, attached to a freehold, to fish in water belonging to other people was unknown to English law and could not be presumed. Nor could it be presumed from mere practice that such a right was granted to the freeholders as a corporation. In this case there was no trace of any corporation ever having existed. The freeholders therefore never had a legal right to fish in the Wye, and although their action had been more or less tolerated, the legal rights had never been fully tested until that case.

The result of this decision is that a custom exercised as of right for 600 years is now prohibited; that certain fishermen who made a living by fishing in the Wye and selling the catch are now deprived of their livelihood; and that the freeholders generally cannot use rod or line in the river, although they and their predecessors have done so for six centuries.

The Lough Neagh Case.

(JOHNSTON AND OTHERS v. O'NEILL AND OTHERS.)

This case commenced in 1907. Captain O'Neill, the plaintiff, rents from Lord Shaftesbury the eel fishing in the River Bann and Lough Neagh, the largest inland lake in the United Kingdom, 25 miles by 15 miles. Lord Shaftesbury claims the sole rights of fishing of all kinds in the River Bann and Lough Neagh. He claims as the heir of Lord Donegall, to whom Charles II. granted a patent of the exclusive rights of fishing. The defendants were the representatives of 800 local fishermen, who and their ancestors have for many centuries exercised the custom of taking all kinds of fish from the lake, a custom which has not hitherto been questioned. The defendants (1) rested their rights upon this unbroken and unquestioned prescription, and (2) while admitting the title of Lord Shaftesbury to the River Bann fishery contended that the Crown never had a legal right to the fisheries in the lake, and the Shaftesbury claim had never been exercised, and was a mere paper title. Both Irish Courts found for the plaintiff, and the House of Lords upheld their decision by four (Lords Halsbury, Ashbourne, Macnaghten, and Dunedin) against three (Lord

Chancellor, Lords Shaw and Robson). Lord Ashbourne held that the rights of Lord Shaftesbury applied to only one-third of the lake, but the decision extends to the whole lake, and inferentially not only to eel fishing, but all fishing. The result is to destroy a custom which has been undisputed for centuries, and to deprive 800 families of their means of livelihood, and to give a monopoly of fishing rights over 600 miles to a single individual.

Both these judgments have provoked much feeling. The Lough Neagh fishermen have refused to submit and still fish; the Irish party has introduced a Bill to restore their rights. Lord Eversley intends to raise both cases in Parliament, and a strong demand will be made for a legislative remedy. These judgments follow the tradition of recent rulings which have denied the public the right of fishing on non-tidal waters, of walking on the foreshore, of bathing off the seashore or in a river, or of visiting a mountain top or a waterfall, or of taking a boat into a backwater, or of anchoring on any river, or of loitering on a public highway.

H. SACHER.

TO DEVELOP ENGLAND.

The First Year's Work of the Development Commission.

The Development Commissioners were appointed in May, 1910, and in the summer of 1911 they issued their first report. Mr. Lloyd George's Budget of 1909 provided an annual sum of half a million sterling during the next five years to be spent on the economic development of the United Kingdom.

The amount allotted by the Commissioners during the nine months was actually £265,000, of which £165,000 was annual expenditure, and the remaining £100,000 non-recurring. The larger portion of this money is to be devoted to **agricultural research and instruction**. £65,000 goes, for instance, to the establishment of farm institutes in connection with the Government scheme of rural education.

An interim grant of £3,000 was made to the **Agricultural Organisation Society**, pending the establishment of a representative organisation possibly based on the existing A.O.S., which should receive adequate funds for the energetic promotion of **co-operation**, which all who have anything to do with small holdings know to be one of the crying needs of the small holder.

In **Forestry**, which was one of the important industries mentioned in the Act, the Commissioners have so far made little actual progress, but they have nominated from their number a special Forestry Committee. They state that the first step is to secure the services of a number of trained men capable of directing afforestation on a large scale, and to provide technical instruction to remedy the want in future. But a comprehensive scheme of afforestation is under consideration for England. Steps have been taken for the acquisition of a demonstration area in Scotland, and for a forestry school. In Ireland £25,000 to £30,000 is to be advanced for the purchase of land for planting. Irish fisheries and Scottish harbours have their share.

The Commissioners also aim at **increasing the variety of agricultural production**. New crops investigated are flax, hemp, tobacco, and beet. The experiments are costly, but are worth making, whether they add new possibilities to British agriculture, or

demonstrate that further attempts in these directions are waste of time and money.

In regard to **beet**, they propose to consider, in consultation with the Government Departments concerned, the question whether it is possible to make an experiment on a fairly large scale, designed to show not whether beet of good quality can be grown in this country (a point which they think may be regarded as settled), but whether it can be grown at a profit.

Horse breeding received a substantial grant of £50,000 in Great Britain, and further assistance in Ireland.

Since the publication of their first report the Commissioners have announced the allocation of a maximum annual sum of £50,000 for **agricultural research** and local investigation. The subjects of research to be subsidised are: Plant physiology, plant pathology and mycology, plant breeding, fruit growing (including the practical treatment of plant diseases), plant nutrition and soil problems, animal nutrition, animal breeding, animal pathology, dairying, agricultural zoology, and economics of agriculture.

In 1911, 1912, and 1913 the Board of Agriculture proposes to offer 35 **scholarships** in all, worth about £150, and tenable for three years, for agricultural research. The scholarships are intended to secure the necessary quota of trained workers for the promotion of the scheme.

The difficulty in obtaining men trained in forestry is being met by the **Working School of Foresters** in the Forest of Dean, where the students have the advantage of working in the Crown forest domains. The students, who are selected preferably from men who have done some practical work in nurseries or on the land, are paid at a small rate for the work done. The education given is free, and includes, besides silviculture and the felling and conversion of timber, elementary training in surveying, management, and carpentry. By the end of June, 1911, 40 students had obtained the full certificate of the school.

The Road Board's Work.

In making their first distribution of grants, the Road Board decided that the most pressing and urgent need is to encourage and assist highway authorities to strengthen and improve the crusts and surfaces of rural and suburban roads without delay, so as to secure satisfactory road surfaces for the requirements of modern traffic, to alleviate the dust nuisance, and to check the waste that is being incurred by continuing to maintain roads having thin and inadequate crusts by the use of materials unsuited to the traffic requirements. *Motor traffic*, it is pointed out, probably causes less damage and wear than is

caused by horse-drawn traffic on surfaces properly constructed and bound with water-proof bituminous binding material.

Grants are made to the local authorities on the general basis of 75 per cent. of the total cost of improvements. At so early a period the total sum available has not been allocated. Up to the 30th June last the applications and grants paid were:—

| | Applications. | Grants. |
|-------------------|---------------|----------|
| England and Wales | £5,650,000 | £222,000 |
| Scotland | 929,300 | 33,800 |
| Ireland | 1,291,100 | 7,400 |

Total £7,870,400 .. £263,200

THE TAXATION OF LAND VALUES.

Land, Rent, and the Reward of Labour.

An increasing body of opinion holds that the solution of the land and labour question is to be found in the readjustment of the burdens of taxation by a logical extension of the principle of the taxation of land values embodied in the Budget of 1909-10. Mr. Crompton Llewellyn Davies states the case in a memorandum attached to the Report of the United Committee for the Taxation of Land Values:—

"It is desirable that rent should be made a public fund, and that the rates and taxes which penalise and prevent industry should be removed. It is equally or even more desirable that the proportion which rent now bears to wages should be changed. *Fair rent means fair wages, and fair wages fair rent.* Both things depend upon the full utilisation of the more productive portions of land before recourse is had to the less.

"This is the crux of the land and labour question. The solution lies in the Taxation of Land Values, which would make rent a public fund, and at the same time would remove the main causes which prevent the full utilisation of the more productive portions of land and deprive industry of its fair reward.

"Those main causes are:—

"(1) The unproductive or underproductive retention of portions of land for the purpose of speculative gain or monopoly power, or for the inertia or incompetence of the landholder; and

"(2) The penalties and checks on industry—rates and taxes processes and pro-

ducts—which restrict its application and diminish its yield.

"The Taxation of Land Values would discourage such unproductive retention, and if applied universally so as to absorb the whole of economic rent, would make it impossible. At the same time the Taxation of Land Values would provide a substitute for, and enable us to abolish, all the fiscal penalties and restrictions on industry. . . .

"When the landowner's monopoly power is destroyed by the Taxation of Land Values, we shall have free bargaining, which will produce just contracts, without any need for the State to regulate the terms on which we may live and work.

"The Taxation of Land Values would alter the present standard of rent, and establish a just standard. At the same time, by setting free the natural resources it would lead to a large and indefinite increase of production.

"A further result would be to increase the proportion of the produce which goes to labour as its share. It may be that the total increase of production would be so great that economic rent would rise to a higher level than at present, but wages would also rise to an even greater extent, and the proportion of total produce going to labour would be greater than at present. The increase in rent would not be, as now, at the expense of labour. Moreover, with the increase of tax on land values, the whole of the increase would gradually be taken for the public, and thus the whole benefit would go to the community."

The Budget Policy.

A memorial to the Prime Minister and the Chancellor of the Exchequer on the question of land taxation reform backed by the signatures of 173 Liberal and Labour members of Parliament was presented on May 19th, 1911. The deputation included Mr. Charles E. Price, Sir Albert Spicer, Mr. P. Wilson Raffan, Mr. Josiah C. Wedgwood, Mr. Francis Neilson, and Mr. Philip Morrell.

The memorialists urged that the Government should continue and develop the policy inaugurated by the Budget by the following methods:—

(1) Making land values available for public needs;

(2) Freeing industry from monopoly and undue burdens of taxation;

(3) Completing the policy of Free Trade by

(a) Securing greater opportunities to produce in our own country by affording greater opportunities to use the land; and

(b) Abolishing the duties that remain on the food of the people.

We ask, said the memorialists, that this policy may be carried into effect by:—

(1) Hastening the completion of the valuation of all land, apart from improvements, provided for in the Budget of 1909-10;

(2) Making that valuation accessible to the public;

(3) Empowering local authorities to levy rates on the basis of that valuation;

(4) Levying a Budget tax on all land values, to be applied:—

(a) In providing a national fund to be allocated towards the cost of such services as education, poor relief, main roads, asylums, and police, thereby reducing the local rates; and

(b) In substitution of the duties on tea, sugar, cocoa, and other articles of food.

Mr. Asquith said the first real step towards securing the increased value of land for the community was the valuation of land provided for in the Budget; the second was the Budget tax on undeveloped land; and the third was the appointment of the Committee which was to report upon the relationship between local and Imperial finance. He associated himself with the suggestion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer that the views of the deputation should be laid fully before the Committee. He regarded the question as of great importance, both in its urban and its rural aspects, although, in his opinion, the rural aspect was more urgent at the present time.

LAND VALUES TAXATION IN AUSTRALIA.

By C. H. CHOMLEY.

Throughout Australia and New Zealand the principle of taxation upon unimproved land values is in force, embodied sometimes in a national tax, sometimes in a municipal rate, and sometimes in both.

New Zealand has a progressive tax on land values beginning at 1d. in the £ on an unimproved value exceeding £500 and going up to 6d. in the £ on values exceeding £200,000, with an extra rate for absentees. The Dominion also allows municipalities to raise all their rates from land values, exempting improvements, and many of them, including some of the largest cities, have availed themselves of this permission.

In Australia, the State of New South Wales about five years ago passed legislation under which most of the municipalities raise their revenue from land values, the rates in many Sydney suburbs being as high as 5d. to 7d. on the unimproved capital value. A land values tax of 1d. in the £ with an exemption is levied on lands which do not rate on the unimproved value. Victoria has a small land values tax, passed last year, but the rates are levied on annual rental. Tasmania also last year levied a State tax, but rates on annual rental. In Queensland for many years all rates both in town and country have been raised solely from land values, exempting improvements, but there is no State tax on land values. Western Australia has a small national tax on land values, with exemptions, and some of the municipal bodies rate on land values, others on rental. South Australia differs from the rest of Australasia in having a tax of ½d. in the £ on land values without exemption on small properties. On large properties the rate is higher, but does not exceed 1d. Municipal rating on land values is permissive, but not yet largely in force.

In the Commonwealth the present Labour Government last year imposed a tax on land values, which is not substitutional for, but in addition to the taxes levied by the individual States. Its object is partly to raise revenue, but largely also to induce the subdivision of large estates, and for this reason the tax is progressive.

Taxes are payable on the unimproved value only. In all cases where the owner is resident the first £5,000 of unimproved capital value is exempt. After the first £5,000 the value is taxed progressively, the rate increasing with every extra pound of value until it reaches the maximum of 6d. on that portion of the unimproved value which exceeds £80,000. The amount of tax payable on any property up to £80,000 capital value is arrived at by the following formula.

V

$R = (1 + \frac{V}{30,000})$ where R=rate of tax in pence per pound, and V=taxable value after subtracting from the total unimproved value £5,000 which is exempt. For estates

over £80,000 the amount payable is according to the above formula for the first £80,000, plus 6d. on each pound of capital value over £80,000. Hence a property worth £100,000 unimproved capital value is taxed thus: £5,000 is exempt; the next

£75,000 is taxed at $(1 + \frac{75,000}{30,000})$ pence = 3½d. per pound; the remaining £20,000 is taxed 6d. per pound. The above system applies to all property whether owned by residents or absentees, but absentees have to pay an extra tax of 1d. per pound capital value—on values above £5,000, and on values up to £5,000 pay 1d. in the pound.

The formula by which the absentee finds what rate he must pay on that portion of the value which exceeds £5,000, is as follows:—

R=rate of tax in pence per pound.

E=excess of taxable value over £5,000.

$R = (2 + \frac{E}{30,000})$ pence.

Property owners pay the tax on the sum total of the value of all the parcels of land owned by them, or in which they have an interest, according to the value of the total interest. Thus an owner cannot escape by sub-division of properties while retaining ownership of or interest in them.

Owners are required to furnish returns of the value of their lands, as a basis for their assessment, and heavy penalties are imposed for intentional undervaluation, intention being presumed when the discrepancy between the value found by the Tax Commissioner and that given by the owner is great.

Unimproved value in relation to land, means the capital sum which the fee simple of the land might be expected to realise if offered for sale on such reasonable terms and conditions as a bona fide seller would require, assuming that the improvements (if any) thereon or appertaining thereto and made or acquired by the owner or his predecessor in title had not been made.

Value of improvements, in relation to land, means the added value which the improvements give to the land at the date of valuation irrespective of the cost of the improvements.

While the country landowner can escape by cutting his land into blocks below the taxable value, and dispose of them to different buyers at a price which is not lessened by the tax since the allotments purchased are free of it, this course is not usually open to the city landowner, whose blocks, valuable as they may be, are seldom capable of sub-division with advantage.

The tax in its first year of operation has realised about £1,400,000, and has already been the cause of considerable sub-division of country properties.

Cost of Labour Exchanges.

The total cost, from the passing of the Act in September, 1909, to 31st March, 1911, was approximately £250,000. This includes capital expenditure in respect of premises.

THREE YEARS OF THE SMALL HOLDINGS ACT

7,500 Approved Applicants supplied.

The actual achievements under the Small Holdings and Allotments Act during the three years of its operation are shown by the following figures:—

| | |
|------------------------------|---------|
| Total applicants | 30,886 |
| Acres applied for | 507,377 |
| Applicants approved | 17,595 |
| Acres required | 256,134 |
| Acres acquired | 89,253 |
| Applicants put on land | 7,500 |

In addition to the total number of applicants 34 associations applied for land.

The number of applicants to whom land has been actually let by the County Councils of England and Wales is 5,336, including 492 members of 27 Co-operative Small Holdings Associations. Applicants to the number of 2,192 have been provided with 27,000 acres direct by private landowners, "mainly through the instrumentality of the Councils." Land acquired but not actually allotted will probably provide for 1,500 applicants, bringing the total number provided with land in three years up to 9,035.

The applicants who desire to purchase still form "a very small proportion of the total." Out of the 4,003 applicants in 1910 only 74, or 1.8 per cent., expressed a desire to purchase. Thirty per cent. of the total applicants last year were described as agricultural labourers.

Many of the applicants are men who already hold land and wish to increase their holdings.

Twenty County Councils have acquired, or agreed to acquire, over 2,000 acres of land, and more than 20 Councils less than 1,000 acres.

COUNTY COUNCIL RECORDS.

| County. | Acres supplied. | County. | Acres supplied. |
|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| Norfolk..... | 6,321 | West Sussex .. | 36 |
| Somerset..... | 4,135 | Westmorland .. | 79 |
| Cambridge | 4,066 | Brecon | 223 |
| Kesteven | | Rutland | 223 |
| (Lincs.) | 2,875 | East Sussex | 235 |
| Hunts..... | 2,552 | Soke of Peter- | |
| Bedford | 2,482 | borough..... | 245 |
| Devon..... | 2,404 | North Yorks. | 284 |
| Cornwall..... | 2,364 | Flint | 251 |
| Wiltshire..... | 2,310 | Cardiff..... | 277 |
| Cardiff..... | 2,290 | Derby | 265 |

From the returns of the County Councils it appears that there were 8,168 applicants on their books at the end of 1910 for whom land

had not been acquired, or agreed to be acquired, the acreage applied for being 127,256. The Commissioners, however, estimate that another 60,000 or 70,000 acres "will be sufficient to satisfy the whole of the genuine demand existing at present." This demand, it is expected, will be satisfied in another two years, but then "it is undoubtedly the case that a considerable fresh demand will have arisen."

The number of compulsory orders is shown in the following table:—

| | Orders. | Acres. |
|------------|-----------|--------|
| 1908 | 8 | 1,116 |
| 1909 | 161 | 11,230 |
| 1910 | 107 | 8,940 |

Ten Compulsory Orders submitted were refused confirmation by the Board of Agriculture.

Down to the end of 1910 the County Councils paid £1,696,000 for 53,542 acres purchased, and leased 35,611 acres for rents amounting to £14,500.

At the National Congress of Small Holders in October Lord Carrington pointed out that the County Councils will soon be the largest landowners in their counties. Already they hold over 120,000 acres, and, remembering that the Ecclesiastical Commissioners own some 750,000 acres and the Crown over 70,000 acres, it is evident, in his opinion, that the large private landowners are gradually being replaced by public bodies. Under the Small Holdings Act there have already been seventeen cases in which County Councils have acquired estates of over 500 acres. The 120,000 acres already acquired, or agreed to be acquired, will provide holdings for over 12,000 applicants. The amount which has been borrowed for the purchase and adaptation of land exceeds £2,250,000.

On the Crown lands 7,124 out of 63,480 acres are let for small holdings and allotments—an increase of about 435 acres during the year—making an increase of 6,131 acres in the last five years. The net result of the re-lettings and lettings for small holdings and allotments is an increased rental of £665. In the last five years there have been erected for small holders 58 new cottages and farm buildings; 28 cottages have been substantially altered or improved; and other homesteads and buildings have been remodelled for the use of 30 small holders.

The Provision of Allotments.

The total quantity of land let for the purpose of allotments by the various local authorities in England and Wales on December 31st last was 27,838 acres, of which 6,094 acres were the property of the Councils, and 21,744 acres were leased. This land is let to 100,498 individual tenants and 21 associations.

The returns show that 1,582 acres have been acquired for allotments during 1910, as compared with 2,407 acres in 1909. The quantity purchased is 250 acres and the price paid £23,569; while the quantity leased is 1,332 acres, for which rents amounting to £2,953 are paid. The average price of the land purchased is £105 an acre, and the average rent of the land leased £2 4s. 6d.

an acre. If the quantities purchased by the different classes of allotment authorities are considered separately, it appears that the average price paid by Parish Councils is £56 an acre, by Urban District Councils £119 an acre, and by Town Councils £132 an acre. The high average price paid by Urban District Councils is largely accounted for by the purchase of 7a. 0r. 18p. by the Weybridge (Surrey) Urban District Council for £3,600, or over £500 an acre. In the case of land leased, the average rent paid by Parish Councils is £1. 16s. 8d. an acre, by Urban District Councils £2. 8s. 8d. an acre, and by Town Councils £3. 11s. 6d. an acre.

SUCCESS OF THE DANISH SMALL HOLDER. What Agricultural Organisation Can Do.

Danish exports of three separate agricultural products to this country alone amounted in value in 1910 to £18,282,025:—

| | | | |
|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|
| Butter .. | 1,726,091 cwt. | worth | £10,208,192 |
| Eggs | 3,647,139 " | " | 1,732,107 |
| Bacon .. | 1,794,416 " | " | 6,341,726 |

The methods by which this great export trade has been developed have been brought to the public notice by Mr. Rider Haggard in his "Rural Denmark," and in August the British Board of Agriculture issued a paper describing the success of the co-operative movement in Danish agriculture for the benefit of the farmers and small holders of this country. The population of Denmark is about 2½ million, and dairy farming operations on a large scale, to which her present prosperity is largely owing, are only about forty years old.

To begin with, Danish law has for the past hundred years discouraged the existence of large estates. A farm may be kept intact with all its buildings upon it, or it may be divided into two or more farms to be worked separately, but it may not be incorporated into another to form one large farm. A great portion of the agricultural population own the land on which they work. There are in the country 75,230 peasant farms of from 20 to 150 acres, and 68,000 small holdings varying from 3 to 7 acres.

These small holders and farmers are able to reach the best markets by means of co-operation. The co-operative dairy, of which he is a member, buys his milk at the market rate, and sells back to him at a low price the separated milk on which his pigs are fed. The pig is destined for the co-operative bacon factory, the prices of which depend chiefly on the British market, and his eggs go to the Co-operative Egg Export Association.

There were, says the report, so long ago as 1903, 174,742 farms with cows in Denmark; of these 143,863, or 82.3 per cent., are in the hands of men who are members of a co-operative dairy. It may safely be taken that there has been some increase since that year. Again, of the 1,066,698 cows in Denmark, 862,980, or 80.9 per cent., are owned by farmers who are members of co-operative

dairies, while of the remainder about 10 per cent. deliver their milk to joint dairies, so that about nine-tenths of the milk produced in the country is dealt with in dairies working for the principle of association.

The Danish small holder is assured that his cream is made up to the best advantage; he is also assured of the best market available for the manufactured product, and he obtains, moreover, the full value of the by-products of these commodities. The creamery is supplied with the best modern machinery, which would be beyond the reach of the individual farmer, and the milk received is subjected to stringent tests. The average capital required for the foundation of a Danish creamery is £1,200 to £1,500, the sum being usually advanced by a bank to the Co-operative Society. The loan is secured by a mortgage on the factory or creamery, and the lender has a right of recovery against individual members according to the extent of his guarantee, which is fixed by the number of cows on his farm. Each member undertakes to sell all the milk produced on his farm to the dairy for a certain number of years, varying from seven to twenty, and pledges himself to observe certain rules as to the feeding of cows, treatment of the milk, &c. In 1908, of 1,345 Danish creameries, 211 were communal in character, and 1,101 were in the hands of Co-operative Societies. These dairies are themselves combined again into Associations of Dairies, formed to extend and assist the industry.

The agricultural population are fully alive to the value of expert advice. Small groups of farmers combine to form a "control society," whose officer, the controller, travels about to give technical advice on breeding and the increase of the milk-producing capacity of cows. The controller is also commonly a financial expert, so that he can audit the farm accounts.

The co-operative principle, which has proved so effective in the dairy industry, has been extended in other directions, and the large British market for Danish bacon is chiefly supplied by co-operative pig-killing and bacon-curing factories.

The New Small Holdings Commissioners.

In April Sir Edward Strachey announced in the House of Commons that the number of Small Holdings Commissioners would be increased from two to eight, so that they might take active steps to assist and induce County Councils to satisfy the outstanding demands for small holdings and to put into force the provisions of the law in case of necessity. Powers will be sought to enable the Commissioners to press forward co-operative credit and insurance societies for the benefit of the small-holder.

The names of the Commissioners are:—
Northumberland, Cumberland, Durham,
Westmorland, Lancashire, and Yorkshire.—

Mr. A. Allsebrook.

Lincolnshire and Isle of Ely.—Mr. J. H. Diggle.
Cheshire, Derbyshire, Notts, Leicestershire,
Rutland, Northampton, Warwick, Stafford,
Soke of Peterborough, Salop, Worcester, and
Hereford.—Mr. E. O. Fordham.

Somerset, Dorset, Devon, and Cornwall.—
Mr. Sydney Mager.

Wales and Monmouth.—Mr. John Owen.
Wilts, Gloucester, Oxford, Berks, Hants,
and Isle of Wight.—Mr. F. E. N. Rogers.

Bucks, Bedford, Herts, Essex, Middlesex,
Surrey, Sussex, and Kent.—Mr. M. T. Baines.
Norfolk, Hunts, Cambs, and Suffolk.—Mr.
F. Horne.

SMALL HOLDINGS AND HOUSING IN CHESHIRE.

Cheshire was the pioneer county in regard to the administration of the Act, and at the present time the Council possess large areas of land which have been utilised entirely for the small holder and market gardener.

The land owned and leased by the Council comprises 3,177 acres. Of this 2,735 acres have been purchased at a cost of £151,695, and the remainder has been leased. A large portion of the land actually bought by the Council—1,547 acres to be exact—has already been equipped at a cost of £229,039. It has been divided up into small holdings and market gardens, and every plot has been taken and is in course of development. It supports 78 tenants with their families, and the rents receivable amount to £4,127. The remainder of the purchased land is being equipped, and it is expected that £10,000 will be spent on it in this way between now and May 1st of next year. The land that has been leased—an area comprising 441 acres has been equipped at a cost of £5,562, and divided into small holdings taken by 12 tenants, the rent receivable from them being £967.

The Cheshire Council was the first local authority to take advantage of the 1907 Act. They appointed their Small Holdings and Allotments Committee in May, 1908, and two months later, when the Ledsham estate of 853 acres was put up for sale by auction, they purchased it at the price of £35,600.

Of the total area 635 acres were in grass, 188 acres in tillage, and 30 acres were taken up by plantations and roads. The land was divided up into 24 small holdings of varying extent, the average area being about 32 acres, and the average rent about 46s. per acre. There were also five market gardens of from 6 to 12½ acres, averaging 8½ acres in area, and 83s. per acre in rent. Three cottages with small gardens completed the list of tenancies. The small holdings were all provided with homesteads, 16 of which were entirely new; in the other cases existing houses and buildings were renovated and adapted. Four new houses were built in connection with the market gardens, and one old one was put in order

and utilised. The homesteads were, for the sake of economy, built in semi-detached pairs where practicable, and it was found possible to build six pairs in this way. Each pair cost £480 and the single houses £270. That is how the Council laid out their estate at Ledsham.

A similar policy was adopted in regard to other areas subsequently acquired by the Council. The Local Government Board allowed 80 years for the repayment of the purchase money, borrowed on a 3½ per cent. basis, to pay for the estates and for the amounts paid as compensation to out-going tenants. Shorter periods were allowed for repayment of equipment loans, which were granted at various percentages. The rents asked cover the interest and repayment of all the loans. Each applicant must have capital amounting to £5 per acre before the Council will grant him a holding. The people to whom they have let small holdings are principally farmers' sons, farm bailiffs, and farm labourers, the latter predominating. The officials have found that many farm labourers have been able to save a little money—sons at work and daughters in service all contributing to the family fund—and with the little nest egg thus secured they have been able to set up for themselves under the Small Holdings Act. Many of the Cheshire holders have gone in for dairy farming—cheese-making and poultry keeping being popular and profitable. The average price for the whole of the Council's land purchase is £43 an acre. The rentals range from 30s. to £3 per acre, and are regularly paid. The average price of a good farm in Cheshire is £50 per acre, and the Council consider they have been fortunate in acquiring their land at an average of £43. They have still got applications on their books for six or seven thousand acres of land, which shows that "land hunger" is not an empty Party cry. Since the Act came into operation the population of Ledsham has increased from 30 to 140, and the amount of stock kept on the estate has been doubled.

Agricultural Co-operative Societies.

The Agricultural Co-operative Societies making returns to the Board of Trade in 1909 numbered 653; there were also 57 societies formed for the mutual insurance of cattle, pigs, &c., belonging to members.

The following table indicates the extent of the work of 1909:—

| | Prodn. | Distn. |
|-----------------|------------|------------|
| Societies | 317 | 336 |
| Employees | 1,724 | 672 |
| Wages | £70,483 | £34,305 |
| Sales | £2,005,314 | £1,566,077 |
| Profits | £23,663 | £13,071 |

The above does not include the farming and dairying departments of 71 Industrial Co-operative Societies. The total sales of all the Agricultural Co-

operative Societies amounted to £4,039,358 during 1909, an increase of 214 per cent. over the corresponding figure for 1899. Of the increase in distribution nearly 66½ per cent. has taken place in England, but no less than 84 per cent. of the increase in production is to be attributed to Ireland.

During the year the first Co-operative bacon factory—the St. Edmundsbury Co-operative Bacon Factory—was established at Elmswell by the farmers of West Suffolk. It is organised on the lines so successfully laid down in Denmark where, at present, there are in existence over 40 factories with about 100,000 members. Denmark exports 6 million pounds worth of bacon to this country per annum.

LAND BANKS.

Co-operative Credit for Small Holders.

A reform which will go far towards changing the aspect of rural England has been included in the Liberal social programme. Lord Carrington's Agricultural Credit Societies Bill, which has already passed the Lords, will assist the establishment of co-operative credit associations throughout the country. This step is the natural and necessary corollary to the Liberal Government's Agricultural Holdings Acts of 1906 and 1908.

The idea of co-operative credit is scarcely understood in this country, although a few people are dimly aware that something of the kind has been tried with a certain measure of success in Ireland. Nevertheless, it is no exaggeration to say that co-operative banking has been one of the most successful, and at the same time revolutionary movements of the last half-century. Originating in Germany, in which country alone in 1908 17,900 registered co-operative banks disbursed in loans of various kinds the huge sum of nearly £230,000,000, co-operative credit has been adopted on an almost equally

large scale by the Italians, French, Belgians, and Swiss. The Dutch, the Finns, and the various Slav peoples have found it peculiarly adapted to their ideas. It has been successfully launched in India, where 2,008 co-operative banks were established within four years of the passing of the Act. Egypt is moving in the same track.

From the outset co-operative banking has taken two forms, according to the comparative density or sparseness of the local population. There are the small towns and good-sized villages with a comparatively dense population, the members of which are not intimately known to one another. And there is the typical rural parish of small holders or tenants, where the population is sparse and fixed, the members of which are without a constant stream of ready-money, and are uninstructed in business methods, but are, on the other hand, in touch with one another, and are capable of keeping an effective check and control of one another's doings.

The Schulze-Delitzsch and Raiffeisen Systems.

To the former class **Schulze-Delitzsch** applied himself. His banks, therefore, are conducted on a commercial scale, and embrace all classes of workers, besides agriculturists. In default of the personal guarantee which smaller communities can afford, a prominent feature of the **Schulze-Delitzsch** bank is a share capital. Money is not lent without careful and elaborate enquiry, but more reliance is placed on the share capital, whether it be £5 or £20, which the borrower holds in the bank, as a security than upon the personal credit of the man himself, who may be scarcely known to the vast body of members. Dividends are an important consideration, though not essential.

The **Raiffeisen** system, which has been adopted in Ireland, is communal rather than co-operative. The **Raiffeisen** banks are necessarily on a small scale, though in the total their turnover is enormous. The essence of the system is its dependence on personal character instead of share-holdings. Careful selection of members is, therefore, the keystone. This is rendered possible by the extraordinary knowledge of one another's affairs that is the characteristic of rural communities. All the members are under one another's supervision, and they are keenly interested in controlling one another. The income and turnover in any particular bank are necessarily very small, and money is required for long terms, never less than until the next harvest, usually over a period of years.

The costs of management must be kept rigidly to a minimum. In order

to secure the active interest of all members and the success of each credit association, Herr **Raiffeisen** laid it down that the liability of each member for the obligations of the bank was to be unlimited. Every loan is for a specific purpose, and it is the duty of the committee to see that it is so applied. Gratuitous service is willingly given. The only salary allowed is to the secretary. Moreover, in accordance with the nature of the business, and as an additional security, the operations of each credit association are restricted to a definite area, so that the members as far as possible live under the same conditions, and the character of every candidate for membership is known to all the members. This, as we have said, is all-important, as it is ultimately upon character that the whole institution rests. The success of co-operation of this kind has been shown by the enormous spread of these institutions throughout the civilised world—in Germany alone the number of **Raiffeisen** banks in 1907 was 3,000.

Of the 241 co-operative credit societies making returns for 1909 to the Board of Trade, 35 were in England, one in Scotland, and 205 in Ireland. The total membership was 22,359, and Ireland claimed 13,253 of these. The average working expenses, kept low by reason of most of the offices being honorary, worked out at less than £28 per society. The following figures show the extent of their operations:—

| | |
|--|----------|
| Total capital | £157,861 |
| Loans advanced (including re- newals) | 72,874 |
| Loans repaid (including interest) .. | 77,923 |

owing by borrowers £102,838
 Working expenses (including interest
 on capital) 6,677
 Net profit 1,119
 The Agricultural Credit and Insurance
 Societies Bill, promoted by the Government,
 gives power to the Board of Agriculture,
 with a view to develop the agricultural
 industry, to promote the formation or ex-

tension of and to assist agricultural credit
 and insurance societies.

Grants may be made towards the cost of
 formation and the payment of expenses of
 management of any recently-formed society.

Both forms of society are included, i.e.,
 those in which the liability of members is
 limited and those with unlimited liability.

BRITISH CROPS AND CATTLE RETURNS, 1911.

Increase in the Area under Wheat.

The preliminary Agricultural Return for
 1911 shows a further reduction, by 51,272
 acres, of the cultivated area of Great
 Britain, arable land having decreased by
 20,786 acres and permanent pasture by
 30,486 acres.

AVERAGE OF BRITISH CROPS.

| Crop. | Acreage. 1911. | Increase or decrease since 1910. |
|-------------------|-------------------|---|
| Wheat | 1,906,000 | + 97,200 |
| Barley | 1,598,000 | - 130,700 |
| Oats | 3,011,000 | - 10,300 |
| Potatoes | 572,000 | + 32,000 |
| Turnips | 1,565,000 | - 2,100 |
| Mangolds | 452,000 | + 9,500 |
| Lucerne | 53,140 | - 5,356 |
| Hops | 33,000 | + 170 |
| Small Fruit | 84,304 | - 5 |

The area under wheat has been the largest
 recorded in any year since 1899. Barley, on

the other hand, has reached a smaller total
 than any yet recorded. For the second year
 in succession hops have shown a slight ex-
 tension, though the area is still nearly 12,000
 acres less than it was in 1907.

As regards live stock, the returns for 1911
 show a decline in horses and sheep and an
 increase in cattle and pigs. The total num-
 bers, with the increase or decrease com-
 pared with 1910, are given as follows:—

| | Number. | Increase or decrease. |
|--------------|------------|-----------------------------|
| Horses | 1,627,393 | - 64,800 |
| Cattle | 7,114,000 | + 76,900 |
| Sheep | 26,495,000 | - 608,000 |
| Pigs | 2,822,000 | + 472,000 |

The decline in horses has mainly taken
 place in those used for agricultural pur-
 poses. The number of cattle is now the
 largest on record. Pigs increased by no less
 than 20 per cent., the total number being
 restored to the same level as in 1908.

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STOCKPORT

LAND TRANSFER.

Demand for Simpler and Cheaper Methods.

We are promised by the Lord Chancellor at an early date a Bill for the simplification of land transfer. In a debate in the House of Lords last July Lord Loreburn said that the Bill was practically in shape. Solicitors and others will await its appearance with great interest, and it is certain to be a bold attempt to do away with some of the anomalies and inconveniences of transfer which the Lord Chancellor described as "really a scandal." He said that the cost of transfers per annum, apart from Government stamps and charges, amounted to at least £4,000,000. So much do Englishmen appear ready to pay, according to the finding of the Royal Commission on the Land Transfer Acts, for "an almost superstitious reverence for title deeds," and the right to manage their own affairs in their own way.

The final report of the Royal Commission was issued last February. The object of all the Land Transfer Acts has been to simplify and cheapen transfer by creating a register of such a kind that hereafter a mere entry without any fresh examination of the title will serve as a conveyance. The principle has proved a success in Germany and Austria-Hungary, as well as in Australia and New Zealand, where titles are based on English law. When once the register is in being, a vendor can put the purchaser in his place as complete owner without the intervention of a solicitor and at little cost.

The obstacles to the making of this simple goal have been mainly two—the complicated methods of ownership applying to land, and the difficulty of proving clear title. Voluntary registration of title has been available for nearly 50 years, yet not one title in 300 has been registered. Of these a very small proportion have been in the form that is of undoubtedly the most use to owners—that of absolute title. In the County of London, where

registration has been compulsory since 1898 only 8,000 out of 140,000 entries deal with absolute title.

One of the most vital proposals laid before the Commission was that the law of real property should be made the same as that relating to goods. Mr. Charles Sweet asked for the abolition "of the antiquated doctrine of tenure, seisin, and uses," so that a transfer could be made by a document "as simple as a common transfer of stock."

The chief recommendations made by the Commission, apart from many technical alterations in the rules, were:—

The length of title required for registration of absolute title to be 20 instead of 40 years.

Possessory title to ripen into absolute in from 12 to 20 years, the estate not exceeding £10,000 in value.

Enfranchisement of all copyholds.

A statutory receipt to be a sufficient discharge of a mortgage.

The compulsory area to remain as at present (County of London), and to be gradually extended when the system has proved satisfactory.

It is likely that the scheme to be introduced by Lord Loreburn will go a good deal further than any land transfer reform yet given or even mooted by the Royal Commission. The aim will be to clear away much of the unnecessary lumber that makes the transfer of land much more cumbersome than transfer of stock. It may be that the Lord Chancellor will take a leaf from the Canadian legislators when they adopted the Torrens Act, and give owners special inducements to register possessory titles that will soon ripen into absolute titles. The compilation at the national expense of a registry of owners for purposes of taxation of land values seems to make it more imperative than ever that a strenuous effort should be made to simplify the ownership and transfer of land.

The British Harvest.

The season of 1911 was, by reason of an almost unexampled drought, mainly a bad one for farmers, the bright spots being an average crop of wheat, except on lighter soils, and a fairly heavy crop of potatoes unusually free of disease. As compared with the average of 100, turnips and swedes came to only 78 and mangolds to 91. Hay was very short in quantity but well saved. In the later weeks of the drought, pastures were so dried up and exhausted that cattle had to be put on winter food even as early as August. The price of stores fell to a lower point than has been seen for some 40 years, ewes selling for as little as 17s. in Dorset and some other counties.

It is especially unfortunate, in view

of so hot a summer, to find that the area under lucerne fell by 5,365 acres from the cultivation of 1910. A good stand of lucerne would have saved many a farmer who, as it was, had to get rid of some part of his stock at ruinous prices on account of the lack of grass everywhere. The total of clover and rotation grasses, apart from lucerne, also fell by 36,913 acres, not on the whole a bad thing as it happens, for young "seeds" felt the drought badly. On the other hand, established clover and sainfoin were a stand-by almost as valuable as lucerne. In this, the best year for fallowing that has been seen for more than a generation, the area under fallows was 24,607 acres less than in 1910. This represents a falling off of 7 per cent.

RURAL HOUSING.

The Crying Need of the Agricultural Labourer.

The recognition of the futility of spending public money on elaborate machinery for the care of the public health, whilst slums and insanitary houses provided congenial breeding ground for noxious germs of every kind, physical and moral, has led to substantial steps being taken in the large towns to secure better houses for the working man. But in the villages the housing problem is ever growing more acute and more difficult. It has become clear that existing legislation does not meet the pressing need for housing rural labourers. On all sides the cry is raised that there are not enough cottages and that many of the existing cottages are unfit for human habitation, but private enterprise has completely failed to meet the situation, and public enterprise is almost non-existent—less than 100 cottages having been erected by the Rural District Councils. The putting into operation of the sanitary clauses of the Housing Act of 1909 (and Mr. John Burns stated in the House of Commons on August, 3rd, 1911, that there has been a large increase of closing orders in consequence of this Act) has tended to add to the deficiency. In many districts, too, the greater ease of travelling has caused the tentacles of villadom to stretch forth far into the country surrounding large towns—to the advantage in every respect of the town dweller, but to the misfortune of the agriculturalist, who finds that all the avail-

able cottage accommodation is snapped up at higher rents than he is able to afford. This has helped to cause some of the shortage of cottages in Southgate, Billericay, Broadway, in Worcestershire, and elsewhere.

The difficulty of finding cottages for the occupants of condemned cottages acts as a powerful deterrent even on the keenest sanitary authority. It is true that local authorities under various Housing Acts have power to purchase land compulsorily and to build cottages. But there are serious hindrances in the way of this.

On an average, a decent cottage with a garden costs about £200 to build. On the edge of urban areas the additional cost of land may bring the price up to £300. To meet the cost of repairs, rates, taxes, interest on capital and other charges a weekly rental of at least 4s. to 8s. per week is required.

It is clear that these figures are beyond the ability of labourers earning from 12s. to 20s. a week—and more often the actual figure is much nearer the lower than the higher limit. The best solution of the problem would, no doubt, be a general rise of agricultural wages. But this for the moment is not practical politics. It follows then that if the Rural District Councils build cottages for the class that require them, in order to keep the rents within their reach, a subsidy from the rates or from some other source is necessary.

The Dilatoriness of Local Authorities.

It is unnecessary to enlarge on the difficulty of persuading a country local authority to spend the rates for this purpose. An interesting example of the unwillingness of some Rural District Councils to put into force their powers even when the condition of existing houses has become a public scandal has been offered by the Chertsey R.D.C. in its dealings with the village of Thorpe. A complaint was sent in due form to the L.G.B. by four inhabitant householders, as required by the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909, urging the department to take the necessary steps to secure the erection of suitable cottages. An enquiry was held at which the Council employed counsel, in order to prevent the labourers getting the cottages

they required. But the L.G.B., after an interval of three months, decided that "a very substantial addition to the number of existing houses is necessary to meet the reasonable requirements of the population," and the Council was ordered to build them.

Proposals have already been submitted by the District Council for building these cottages, but unfortunately the site selected is stated to be between two sewage works, and is not at all popular with the tenants of the existing cottages, most of which are near the village green.

The case suggests that it would be better that the central authority should be given full power to do the work itself, rather than that it should be under the necessity of forcing an unwilling local authority to build cottages.

The Development Fund and Housing.

There is a growing opinion among the various organisations interested in this important branch of constructive social reform in favour of a State subsidy for rural housing. Already under the Development Act the Commissioners have power to acquire land and to spend money on "any means which appear calculated to develop agriculture and rural districts." Though housing is not specifically mentioned it would seem to come well within the

meaning of this phrase, for lack of labour not only prevents labour going to the villages, but tends to drive to the towns many workers who would otherwise stay on the land. Furthermore, if the Development Commissioners have power to spend money in the encouragement of horse breeding, and they have made substantial contributions for this useful project, it is difficult to refuse the greater claim on their funds of the provision of decent

housing in which a race of healthy and sound men and women may be bred. A subsidy from this source might take the form of (1) a direct grant to the local authority, or (2) the payment of half the interest on the money borrowed for housing purposes. Either plan would get round the present financial difficulty.

The Irish Labourers' Acts provide abundant precedents for this utilisation of State funds for the provision of better housing. Over £50,000 a year is paid by way of subsidy for cottages for Irish labourers. New cottages are rapidly being built on money advanced by the Irish Land Commission on the extremely generous terms of repayment on the annuity system of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum to cover interest and repayment of principal in 68½ years. It

has also been suggested that County Councils should have the specific duty cast upon them of supplying a demand for houses in the same way as they now have for supplying land for small holdings, and that not only District Councils, but also Parish Councils, should be given power to build cottages, subject, of course, to the approval of the Local Government Board. These amendments of the law with power given to the central government to act at the expense of a refractory local authority in case of necessity would undoubtedly help to make the provision of cottages simpler, but the fundamental obstacle is financial, and until this is surmounted there is small hope of the English labourer getting the same measure of justice as has been accorded to his Irish fellow worker.

A RECORD SUMMER.

The weather of 1911 was remarkable for producing in England the hottest summer, the hottest quarter (July, August, and September), the hottest month (August), and the hottest day (August 9th), for over half-a-century. Probably the period of comparison could be extended in all these cases if records existed sufficiently far back. The drought, also, was more pronounced than has been the case in any previous year, according to the calculation of Dr. H. R. Mill, of the British Rainfall Organisation, who reports that though less rain fell during July—September in 1898 (when the temperature was lower) more rain fell in the same months of the only two years which were comparable in warmth. The total sunshine record for July was the largest ever known. The shade temperature of 100 degrees registered at Greenwich on August 9th was the highest ever known in England, and upon only one day in the month was the maximum less than 70 degrees. Records for 65 years show that upon an average the English summer has 15 days upon which the thermometer shows a shade maximum of 80 degrees or more. The summer of 1911 gave 35 such days, which still falls short of the 40 such days in 1868. If September is included the 1911 total of such days is 43. From June 28th to July 25th—26 days—not a drop of rain fell, and this is said to have been the longest dry spell for many years. Even when the spell was broken the rainfall was not heavy, and the drought cannot be said to have come to a definite end until September 13th, when the welcome rain poured over wide areas. From June 29th to September 13th there were only 14 days, out of 76, upon which rain fell at all. In the Bradford Corporation gathering grounds, in the Nidd Valley, for weeks before the downpour came there was reported a net loss in the quantity of stored water of from 8 to 11 million gallons per day. Calculated from the point of view of temperature the extraordinary summer of 1911 may be said to have begun in May.

The rain registers at Kew gave the following figures for July and August:

| | 1911. | 35 years' average. | Record (1899). |
|--------------|-------|--------------------|----------------|
| July | ·82 | 2·31 | ·61 |
| August | ·78 | 2·16 | ·44 |
| Total | 1·60 | 4·47 | 1·05 |

The following comparisons have been made by Dr. Mill at Camden Square, London, N.W. As has been said, the record for the hottest shade temperature mentioned in the foregoing remarks was secured at Greenwich. It will be noticed that Dr. Mill's record at Camden Square is 97·1.

LOWEST RAINFALL OF THE THREE MONTHS
* JULY-SEPTEMBER SINCE 1858.

| | July. | August. | Sept. | Total. |
|----------|-------|---------|-------|---------|
| Average | 2·36 | 2·35 | 2·19 | 6·90in. |
| 1898.... | 1·09 | 1·18 | ·33 | 2·60in. |
| 1911.... | 1·17 | ·49 | 1·31 | 2·97in. |
| 1906.... | ·61 | ·87 | 1·75 | 3·23in. |
| 1868.... | ·45 | 2·28 | 1·74 | 4·47in. |
| 1899.... | 1·45 | ·70 | 2·65 | 4·80in. |

COMPARISON OF THE THREE HOTTEST SUMMERS
IN LONDON.

| | July. | | | August. | | |
|--------------------|------------|-----------|---------------|------------|-----------|---------------|
| | Mean temp. | Mean max. | Absolute max. | Mean temp. | Mean max. | Absolute max. |
| Average .. | 63·5 | 74·3 | — | 62·3 | 72·7 | — |
| 1868..... | 68·8 | 82·4 | 93·3 | 64·0 | 73·9 | 88·2 |
| 1899..... | 67·6 | 79·2 | 89·2 | 67·0 | 79·4 | 91·2 |
| 1911..... | 69·0 | 81·7 | 92·6 | 68·2 | 80·8 | 97·1 |
| 1911 above average | 5·5 | 7·4 | — | 5·9 | 8·1 | — |

| | September. | | | Three months, July-Sept. | |
|--------------------|------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------------|-----------|
| | Mean temp. | Mean max. | Absolute max. | Mean temp. | Mean max. |
| Average .. | 57·7 | 67·4 | — | 61·2 | 71·5 |
| 1868..... | 60·4 | 71·8 | 91·0 | 64·4 | 76·0 |
| 1899..... | 58·6 | 68·4 | 79·7 | 64·4 | 75·7 |
| 1911..... | 60·4 | 73·0 | 92·3 | 65·9 | 78·5 |
| 1911 above average | 2·7 | 5·6 | — | 4·7 | 7·0 |

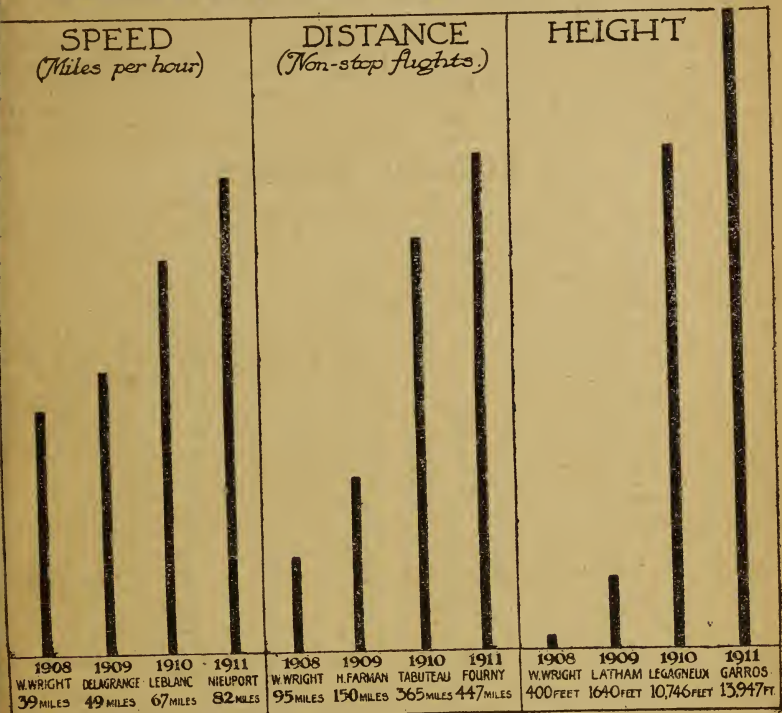
SECTION XVII.—AVIATION.

THE PROGRESS OF AVIATION IN 1911.

By T. BEAUGEARD.

The history of dynamic flight for the last twelve months is once more a long record of progress. How steady and sure this progress has been may be seen at a glance by the following diagrams, which show the records of aeroplanists in speed, distance, and height, from 1908 to the present year:—

Records of Speed, Height, and Distance.



Latest World's Records (except Cross-country Flight, for which see below)

According to the latest official returns available the list of world's records achieved in recent performances up to the end of October, 1911, is as hereunder:—

Distance and Duration—

(a) Non-Stop flight over a closed circuit:—

FOURNY (France), on September 2nd, 1911, on a Maurice-Farman biplane round a 10 kilometre course (about 6 miles), at Buc: 722.933 kil. (about 448 miles) in 11h. 1m. 29s.

Best performance approaching the record:—

OLIESLAGERS (Belgium), on July 16th, 1911, on a Bleriot monoplane at Kiewit-Hasselt: 635.2 kil. (about 394 miles) in 7h. 18m. 16s.

In Stages—

HELEN (France), on September 8th, 1911, on a Nieuport monoplane, over a circular course extending from Etampes to Gidy, near Orleans: 1,252.8 kil. (about 778 miles) in 14h. 7m. 50s., inclusive of three stops. The net flying time was 13h. 17m., giving an average speed of 58.5 miles per hour.

Best performance approaching the record:—

HELEN (France), on August 26th, 1911, on a Nieuport monoplane over a circular course extending from Rheims to Somme-Vesle: 1,126.4 kil. (about 700 miles) in 13h. 47m. 19s., including three stops.

Speed—

NIEUPORT (France), on June 26th, 1911, on a Nieuport monoplane at Mourmelon; 82·5 miles per hour.

Best performance approaching the record:—

HAMEL (Great Britain), on July 1st, 1911, on a Bleriot monoplane, at Eastchurch, Isle of Sheppey; 81·04 miles per hour.

Height—

GARROS (France), on September 4th, 1911, at Dinard, on a Bleriot monoplane: 4,252 metres (about 13,947 feet).

Best performance approaching the record:—

CAPT. FELIX (France), on August 5th, 1911, at Etampes, on a Bleriot monoplane: 3,490 metres (about 11,480 feet).

Passenger Carrying—

BREGUET (France), on March 23rd, 1911, on a Breguet biplane, fitted 100 h.p. Gnome motor, at La Brayelle, near

Douai: 5 kil. (3·105 miles), with eleven passengers, the twelve people weighing, with petrol, water, &c., 632 kilogrammes, or about 1,400 lbs.

Best performance approaching the record:—

SOMMER (France), on March 24th, 1911, on a Sommer biplane, fitted with a 70 h.p. Gnome motor, at Mouzon, in the Ardennes: 800 metres (about 1,000 yards), with twelve passengers, the total useful load carried, inclusive of petrol, &c., being 653 kilogrammes, or about 1,450 lbs.

Height (Aviator and One Passenger)—

MAHIEU (France), on September 22nd, 1911, on a Voisin biplane, at Issy-les-Moulineaux: 2,460 metres (about 9,125 feet).

Best performance approaching the record:—

DE MONTALENT (France), on August 10th, 1911, on a Bréguet biplane, at Brooklands: 2,250 metres (about 8,390 feet).

Cross-Country Flying.

The development of cross-country flying and the utilisation of aeroplanes for military purposes are the two chief features of the year's progress in aviation. Flights of from 1,000 to 1,500 miles were undertaken from France to Italy, Spain, Belgium, and Holland, while in England was held the great air-race round the country, known as the "Circuit of Britain." In military aviation remarkable results were obtained by using aeroplanes for reconnoitring work at both the French and German Army Manœuvres last autumn. Heavier-than-air machines were also used in actual warfare in the Civil War in Mexico (Feb., 1911), and in the Italo-Turkish War in Tripoli (Oct., 1911).

In December, 1910, took place the first important cross-country flight of the new season, Mr. SORWITH accomplishing a magnificent non-stop flight of 169 miles, from Eastchurch in the Isle of Sheppey to Thirimont in Belgium. The performance was undertaken in connection with the De Forest competition, which was reserved exclusively for British aviators piloting British-built machines. A prize of £4,000 was to be awarded to the competitor who flew the longest distance from any point on the English coast to the Continent; Mr. SORWITH was finally adjudged the winner. The distance of 169 miles from Eastchurch over the North Sea into Belgium was covered in 3 hours 40 minutes. The winner piloted a Howard-Wright biplane, fitted with a 60 h.p. E.N.V. (British) motor. A melancholy interest, however, was attached to the tragic disappearance at sea of one of the world's finest airmen, Mr. CECIL GRACE, in an attempt to fly from Calais to the Kentish Coast (December 22nd).

The next important air-race from country to country was the *Paris to Madrid flight*, the start for which was made at Issy-les-Moulineaux, near the French capital, on May 21st. At one

point of the itinerary, between San Sebastian and Madrid, the competitors had to fly over mountains at a height of 5,000 feet. VEDRINES, the pilot of the Morane-Borel monoplane, was the winner, having covered the distance between the two capitals in 37 hours, 26 minutes, 12 seconds, the net time of flying being only 14 hours, 54 minutes. The course comprised three stages: (1) Issy to Angoulême (400 kil.); (2) Angoulême to San Sebastian (353 kil.); and (3) San Sebastian to Madrid (462 kil.). A terrible accident marred the start of the race at the Issy aerodrome, one of the competitor's aeroplanes falling in the crowd and killing M. Berteaux, the French Minister for War.

In the following week (May 28th) was held another great aviation contest, the *Paris-Rome-Turin circuit*. Again over twenty aviators entered the lists, the course this time being divided as follows: Buc (near Paris), Dijon, Lyons, Avignon, Nice, Genoa, Rome, Florence, Bologna, and Turin. On the first day of the contest two of the flying men succeeded in reaching Avignon, having covered a distance of 400 miles between sunrise and sunset. BEAUMONT (Lieut. Conneau) was the first to arrive in Rome in his Bleriot monoplane, and finally won the largest share of the money prize.

In the *European Circuit race* that followed (June 18th) the competitors had to fly across four different countries: France, Belgium, Holland, and England. Owing to bad weather the contest lasted nearly three weeks. The compulsory stopping places *en route* were Rheims, Liège, Spa, Utrecht, Brussels, Roubaix, Calais, London, Dover, again Calais, and finally Vincennes, near Paris, the starting as well as the finishing point. Seven competitors completed the entire circuit of about 1,000 miles, the official total time of the first four being respectively as follows:—

| | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------|--|--|
| BEAUMONT (Bleriot monoplane) | 58 hrs. 38 mins. | | |
| GARROS (Bleriot monoplane) | 62 " 17 " 7 secs. | | |
| VIDART (Deperdussin monoplane) | 73 " 32 " 57 " | | |

VEDRINES (Morane-Borel monoplane).. 86 hrs. 34 mins. 32 secs.
The principal amounts won during the race were awarded to: Beaumont, £6,466; Vidart, £2,572; Garros, £2,240; and Vedrines, £2,080.

Circuit of Great Britain.

The last, and, to a certain extent, the most important of the great cross-country flights of the year was the "Circuit of Britain," for which the proprietors of the "Daily Mail" offered a prize of £10,000 to the competitor who covered in the fastest time the distance of 1,010 miles to and from the Brooklands Aerodrome, Weybridge, and Stirling. We append the list of stopping places or controls and the table of distances, as arranged by the Royal Aero Club.

The distinctive feature of the contest, and that which made it the most arduous of the whole series of air-races previously arranged, was the condition that the flying men had to complete the course on the same machine and with the same motor. Of the thirty entrants only four succeeded in covering the distance. They were: BEAUMONT (Bleriot monoplane); VEDRINES (Bleriot monoplane); VALENTINE (Deperdussin); and CODY (Cody biplane). BEAUMONT was

declared the winner, his flying time being officially given at 22 hours, 28 minutes, 42 seconds. VEDRINES, who was the second competitor to reach the finishing line at Brooklands, accomplished the 1,010 miles' journey in 23 hours, 37 minutes, 54 seconds.

| Controls. | Miles. |
|-----------------------------------|--------|
| Brooklands to Hendon | 20 |
| Hendon to Harrogate | 182 |
| Harrogate to Newcastle | 68 |
| Newcastle to Edinburgh | 93 |
| Edinburgh to Sterling | 31 |
| Stirling to Glasgow | 22 |
| Glasgow to Carlisle | 86 |
| Carlisle to Manchester | 103 |
| Manchester to Bristol | 141 |
| Bristol to Exeter | 65 |
| Exeter to Salisbury Plain | 83 |
| Salisbury Plain to Brighton | 76 |
| Brighton to Brooklands | 40 |

Total 1,010

Other Cross-Country Flights.

WORLD'S RECORD.

ATWOOD (U.S.A.), in August, 1911, on a Burgess-Wright biplane: Distance travelled from St. Louis, Missouri, to New York City: 1,265 miles. Flying time for entire trip, 28h. 31m.

Best performance approaching the record:—

KOENIG (Germany), in June—July, 1911, on an Albatros biplane: Distance travelled in the German National Circuit from Berlin to Kiel, Cologne and back: 1,168 miles. (HERR KOENIG was accompanied by a passenger throughout the journey.)

Other notable cross-country flights of the year include:—

The German National Circuit (June 11th to July 10th), in which only the first two pilots completed every stage of the course of 1,168 miles, from Berlin to Kiel, and Cologne and back, to the German capital. HERR KOENIG, who drove an Albatros biplane, fitted with a Gnome motor, was the winner. All the competitors, with one exception, carried a passenger.

The Belgian Circuit (August 6th to August 20th). This race was flown over a course of 360 miles, extending from Brussels to Mons, Tournai, Blankenberge, Antwerp, and thence again to Brussels. The final classification of the competition was as follows: (1) TRICK (Bleriot monoplane); (2) COMTE D'HEPSEL (Deperdussin monoplane); (3) LANSER (Deperdussin monoplane); (4) CONTENTET (Wright-Avia biplane).

St. Louis to New York Flight (August 14th to August 25th). In this great flight across six states of the Republic of North America. ATWOOD, the Burgess-

Wright biplanist, achieved a world's record, covering the distance of 1,265 miles, between St. Louis and New York City, in the net flying time of 28h. 31m.

GORDON-BENNETT AVIATION CUP.

In addition to the long series of cross-country flights just mentioned, a number of aerial contests, governed by certain special conditions, took place in France and England. The first of these in importance was the Gordon-Bennett Cup Race, which was held on July 1st, at the Royal Aero Club aerodrome, Eastchurch, Isle of Sheppey. The contest resulted in a victory for the American pilot, WEYMANN, who completed the 150 kil. (93·13 miles) that constituted the course, in 1h., 11m., 36½s. WEYMANN drove a Nieuport monoplane, fitted with a 100 h.p. Gnome engine, and his average speed was 78 miles per hour. The remaining competitors were officially classified as follows:—

| Pilot. | Machine. | Time. |
|--|---------------|-------|
| 2. Le Blanc (Fce). 100 h.p. Gnome—Bleriot .. | 1h. 13m. 30s. | |
| 3. Nieuport (Fce). 70 h.p. —Nieuport .. | 1h. 14m. 37s. | |
| 4. Ogilvie (Gt.B.). 50 h.p. N.E.C.—Wright .. | 1h. 49m. 10s. | |

At an early stage of the race HAMEL, one of the British competitors, had to retire from the field owing to an accident. He had, however, succeeded in accomplishing the remarkable feat of attaining, with his 100 h.p. Gnome Bleriot, a speed of 81 miles per hour.

Winner in 1909: GLENN CURTISS (U.S.A.), at Rheims (20 kil., or 12·42 miles in 15m., 50s.).

Winner in 1910: GRAHAME WHITE (Great Britain), at Belmont Park, New York (100 kil., or 62 miles in 1h., 1m., 4s.).

MICHELIN £4,000 PRIZE.

Another remarkable contest was the race for the £4,000 prize offered by Messrs. Michelin, for a flight from Paris to the summit of the Puy-de-Dôme, in Auvergne. The prize was finally captured by RENAUX, who, carrying M. Senouque as passenger, in a Maurice Farman biplane, fitted with a Renault motor, covered the 256 miles between Paris and the top of the mountain, some 4,800 feet above sea-level, in 5h. 10m. 46s. (March 7th, 1911). Only a single stop was made in the course of the journey, the aviator's actual flying time being just under four hours.

THE YEAR'S PRIZE-WINNERS.

A rough estimate gives £200,000 as the total amount won by successful competitors and constructors during the year. This estimate includes £44,000 offered by the French Government for the military aeroplane competition at Rheims, £20,000 distributed among the successful flyers in the European Circuit, £10,000 given by the "Daily Mail" for the flight round Britain, £10,000 offered for a flight from St. Petersburg to Moscow, and the numerous and substantial prizes offered by Messrs. Michelin, M. Quentin-Bauchart, Baron de Forest, and Mr. Gordon-Bennett. In addition large sums of money were competed for at the many flying meetings held in France, Germany, Austria, Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, and America.

BEAUMONT (Lieut. Conneau), who was first in the European Circuit and in the Circuit of Britain, and who captured the largest share of the money-prize offered for the Paris to Rome and Turin race, is probably the biggest winner. SOPWITH, in addition to the De Forest £4,000 prize, reaped a rich harvest at various aviation meetings in America, while WJNNMALEN, the Dutch aviator, carried off the £4,000 prize offered for a flight from Paris to Brussels.

The year's prize-winners include also:

TABUTEAU, the victor in the French Michelin Aviation Cup of the value of £800. The Cup was awarded at the time for the longest distance flown without a stop, and on the last day of the year, 1910, the biplanist secured the trophy by covering 365 miles in his

Maurice Farman biplane in 7h. 48m. 31s.

LIEUT. CAMMERMAN, on the same day, won the Lazara-Weiller prize of £1,000 for cross-country flying by French officers in uniform, and carrying a passenger. LIEUT. CAMMERMAN drove a Henry Farman biplane, and covered a distance of 232 kil. (133 miles), in 4h. 2m. 30s.

Mlle. HELENA DUTRIEU, riding also a Henry Farman, won again this year the "Coupe Femina" for lady flyers.

RENAUX secured the Quentin-Bauchart prize, given for the aviator who completed the greatest total of kilometres across country up to September 30th. Included in the conditions was a rule that a flyer carrying a passenger was entitled to add 25 per cent. to his total. By this rule RENAUX succeeding in totalling 6,600 kil., carrying a passenger the whole time on his Maurice Farman biplane.

ALL-BRITISH CONTESTS.

(For British Aviators Piloting British-built Machines.)

De Forest £4,000 Prize.—Sopwith, December 18th, 1910. Flight from Eastchurch to Thirimont, Belgium, 169 miles. Machine used: Howard-Wright biplane, fitted with 60 h.p. E.N.V. (British) motor.

BRITISH EMPIRE MICHELIN CUP (No. 2).

Cody won the trophy and £400 offered by the Michelin Tyre Company, for completing a prescribed circuit of 125 miles in the fastest time. The aviator made three attempts, and his successful flight took place on September 11th, over the following circuit: Laffan's Plain, Andover, Reading, Hendon, and Brooklands. Time: 3h. 6m. 30s. Machine used: Cody biplane, fitted with a 60 h.p. Green engine.

Manville £500 Prize, for the aviator who, accompanied by a passenger, remains the longest aggregate time in the air, valued in accordance with a specified scale.

Winner: PIXTON, whose recorded flights at Brooklands were as follows:

| | | |
|-----------------|-------------|------------------|
| May 6th | 31m. .. | Avro biplane. |
| May 20th | 49m. .. | Avro biplane. |
| June 24th | 31m. .. | Bristol biplane. |
| July 15th | 1h. 16m. .. | Bristol biplane. |
| October 4th .. | 2h. 9m. .. | Bristol biplane. |
| Total | 5h. 16m. | |

MILITARY AVIATION.

Following up the experiments undertaken at the French Army Manœuvres, in Picardy in 1910, the aeroplane was extensively utilised for reconnoitring work at the army manœuvres held simultaneously last autumn in France and Germany.

In February, 1911, heavier-than-air machines were for the first time utilised in actual warfare. This was in connection with the Mexican rebellion, then in progress. Mr. Hamilton, on his biplane, flew twice over the town of Ciudad-Juarez, which was under siege by the Mexican insurgents, and then returned across the American frontier with

a graphic account of the conditions of the city. Mr. Harkness also flew, on an Antoinette monoplane, from San Diego to Juana, a distance of 40 miles, carrying with him a message to a patrol of American cavalry that had been sent to prevent the insurgents from crossing into the United States.

In the course of the Italo-Turkish war in North Africa (October, 1911), the aeroplanists of the Italian Army Air Corps proved of the greatest assistance. One day, at an early stage of the hostilities, it was believed that the enemy's troops were 60 miles away from Tripoli, while they were in reality but 15 miles distant. Their pre-

sence, however, was detected in time by the aerial scouts, who thus saved the main body of the army from a surprise attack.

In the operations carried out in the East of France forty-four flyers were attached to the opposing forces, the 6th and the 7th corps, and proved invaluable as scouts. They were on the wing practically from morning to night, and in every kind of weather, and acted with conspicuous success as auxiliaries not only to cavalry, but to artillery. At the conclusion of the manoeuvres, Colonel Bernard, the well-known authority, made the significant statement, that "two batteries of artillery and one aeroplane were five times more redoubtable than three batteries without an aeroplane."

No less important were the results obtained at the German Army Manœuvres in Mecklenburg. On one occasion the aeroplanists of the opposing forces were able to secure so complete and accurate a description of the enemy's positions that early in the morning each side was acquainted with the other's plans.

A substantial increase for the purchase of aeroplanes is expected in the German Budget over the £75,000 voted last year, while in France the Budget for 1912 for military aviation has been raised to nearly £680,000. It is estimated that by the end of 1914 France will be in possession of 1,000 military aeroplanes and an equal number of qualified military pilots.

England still lags considerably behind other nations in connection with the development of dynamic flight for purposes of war. At present all matters relating to military aviation are under the direction of the authorities at the Army Balloon Factory, Farnborough, the Commander of which is Major Sir Alexander Bannerman. Here is the list of flying machines owned or ordered by our War Office:—

1 Wright (obsolete type), 1 Bleriot (obsolete type), 1 Farman (damaged), 1 Paulhan (practically untried), 1 De Havilland, 1 Howard-Wright, 1 British-built Army biplane (damaged), 2 Valkyries (one damaged), 4 Bristols, 1 Bréguet, 1 Nieuport.

The Air-Battalion head-quarters are at Farnborough, but most of the practice and experimental work in connection with aviation is carried out at Salisbury Plain under the supervision of Capt. Fulton, the officer commanding the aeroplane section.

The Battalion consists of about 200 officers and men. The officers receive Engineer pay in addition to regimental pay.

It is expected that at a very early date the Government will take active steps in re-organising and strengthening our Army Air Corps. From 80 to 100 officer-aviators are to be added to those at present in the Battalion, and a number of mechanics with experience of aeroplane work will be invited to enlist as privates. The number of heavier-than-air machines will be increased in proportion. The Government will also, it is believed, offer British

manufacturers, a special prize for machines, which they will guarantee to purchase provided that they pass certain specified tests.

In France the organisation of military aeronauts is on a vast and elaborate scale. The full force of military and civilian aviators who may be requisitioned for Army service is under the command of General Roques, the Inspector-General of Aeronautics. All aviators are urged to qualify for the "military brevet," for which the tests are as follows:—

- (1) A flight of 100 kil. across country.
- (2) A flight of two hours.
- (3) A flight of over 300 metres high.
- (4) A flight in a wind of 10 metres per second (20 miles per hour).

An indemnity is given to all soldiers and officers making service ascents.

The aeronautical troops, which were formerly scattered throughout the engineer regiments, have recently been welded into a single regiment. This regiment is commanded by a colonel, and distributed as follows: 3 companies at Versailles, 1 company at Meudon, and 2 companies at Châlons. The central aeronautical stores at Meudon have been placed under the command of a "Director of Aeronautical Material."

Great activity now prevails throughout Germany in connection with military aviation. In accordance with an Army Order issued in September, the German aeronautical troops have been distributed into three battalions, consisting of six companies; the first battalion, under the command of Major Sperling, is stationed at Berlin. The second battalion, commanded by Major Gross, is attached to the Aircraft Factory: the first company is stationed at Berlin and the second at Königsberg, in Prussia. The third battalion, under command of Major von Schulz, has its head-quarters in Cologne, where the first company is stationed, but the second company is at Metz.

The Italian Army possessed 13 aeroplanes at the end of October, 1911. These included 5 Bleriot monoplanes, 5 Farman biplanes, 1 Nieuport monoplane, 1 Voisin biplane, and 1 Etrich monoplane. The Military Aviation School has been transferred from Centocelle to Aviano, near Udine, while smaller aviation departments have been established at Bovolenta, near Padua, and at Somma Lombarda.

In the United States of America the military flying school at College Park is pursuing with considerable success its work of training pilots for the Army. The aeroplanes in use are a Burgess-Wright, a Wright, and a Curtiss. The instructors are Capt. Paul Beck, Lieut. T. Milling, and Lieut. H. N. Arnold.

Over thirty officers are now undergoing training at the Government flying school in Russia. The establishment consists of a permanent staff, in charge of the stores and workshops, and a battalion commanded by a Major-General.

NAVAL AVIATION.

Apart from the successful experiments made in *America* with the Curtiss hydro-aeroplane, and in *France* with the Voisin "canard," which can be made to start from and alight on water, no striking development of the use of the heavier machine for naval purposes can be recorded this year. There is equally very little to chronicle in regard to aviation in foreign navies. In *England* half-a-dozen naval officers have been trained privately, and two Valkyrie machines have been presented to the Admiralty, but so far nothing has been done officially to

encourage aviation in the navy. In *France* Commander Daveluy has been commissioned to organise a naval aerial squadron, and a flying ground and a dépôt is to be installed at Toulon. The *Russian* Admiralty possesses a fully-equipped flying school at Sebastopol, at which fourteen officers have already been trained. The *United States* Navy possesses three aeroplanes: a Wright, a standard Curtiss, and a new two-seater Curtiss hydro-aeroplane. The organisation is under the command of Captain Chambers, assisted by two qualified pilots: Lieuts. J. Rodgers and T. Ellyson.

THE AVIATION INDUSTRY.

The aim of aeroplane designers and builders has been this year rather to perfect existing models than to evolve new types. For instance, there were no original features in the shape or general constructional details of most of the machines that were seen in October at Rheims, where took place the great military competition organised by the French War Office. But the tests showed that the aeroplanes were more solidly built than was the case hitherto, and that, generally, the landing chassis had been strengthened so considerably that the machines could, as a rule, fulfil one of the essential requirements set down in the rules, namely, alighting on stubble or ploughed land without damage. Another noteworthy feature was the utilisation of three-bladed and four-bladed propellers. Here are specifications of some perfected types of machines:—

Nieuport Monoplane.—A three-seated machine with a total length of 29ft. 6in. The lateral stability is insured by the warping of the wings, which are so constructed that immediately one of them is bent the other assumes a similar though contrary deformation, tending to restore equilibrium. The body is sufficiently high to hide completely the pilot and passengers, but its sides are provided with transparent celluloid panels, situated under the wings, enabling the occupants to see the ground. The landing chassis is made of steel, and the vertical and horizontal rudders are worked by one single lever.

Bréguet "Double Monoplane."—A giant flying machine furnished with a 140 h.p. Gnome motor. Its weight with pilot, passengers, and fuel aboard is nearly 2,500 lbs. The aeroplane is designed to lift three passengers, but the constructor is confident of its ability to carry eight.

Borel Monoplane.—Chassis equipped with four wheels, instead of two. Skids strongly connected with fuselage. Engine, 140 h.p. Gnome.

Henry Farman Biplane.—Weight in flying trim: 950 kilogrammes. Span 16

metres. Seats of pilot and passengers considerably in advance of the main plane.

Astra Biplane.—Furnished with double control and a 75 h.p. Renault motor.

British manufacturers have equally improved considerably the aeroplanes placed on the London market. Messrs. Short have just completed a biplane fitted with two propellers and two engines, while Mr. Barber and the Bristol Company have also introduced important improvements into the machines coming from their works.

For the first six months of 1911, imports, exports, and re-exports into and from Great Britain of aeroplanes and parts, show the following amounts as compared to the totals for the same period in 1910:—

| | 1910 (in £) | 1911 (in £) | Inc. or Dec. |
|------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Imports..... | 25,581 | 22,894 | — 2,887 |
| Exports..... | 5,820 | 9,611 | + 3,791 |
| Re-exports | 3,528 | 8,354 | + 4,826 |

Appended is a table giving a comparative return for the first nine months of the present and past years respectively:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1910-11.
Aeroplanes, airships, balloons, and parts thereof.

| | Imports. | | Exports. | | Re-exportation. | |
|----------|----------|--------|----------|--------|-----------------|-------|
| | 1910. | 1911. | 1910. | 1911. | 1910. | 1911. |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Jan. . . | 2,516 | 1,196 | 750 | 1,088 | 550 | Nil |
| Feb. . . | 437 | 3,129 | 2,950 | 1,786 | — | — |
| Mar. . . | 7,516 | 11,327 | 128 | 1,027 | 600 | 857 |
| April. . | 6,305 | 2,110 | 950 | 807 | 1,470 | 4,343 |
| May. . . | 846 | 1,707 | 400 | 2,471 | 350 | 1,072 |
| June. . | 7,961 | 3,225 | 642 | 2,432 | 558 | 1,682 |
| July. . | 11,608 | 9,822 | 336 | 2,256 | 830 | 643 |
| Aug. . . | 6,188 | 2,873 | 812 | 2,153 | 1,455 | 265 |
| Sept. . | 1,034 | 1,839 | 4,340 | 1,183 | 1,668 | — |
| | 44,411 | 37,228 | 11,308 | 15,203 | 7,481 | 9,262 |

THE VICTIMS OF AVIATION.

The list of fatalities is a heavy one this year. At the end of October, 1910, the number of the victims of aviation did not exceed 24, but in the 12 months that followed no fewer than 80 flying men have lost their lives in the attempt to conquer the air. Of the total number five were certificated British aviators, namely, the Hon. C. S. ROLLS (killed on July 12th, 1910, at Bournemouth), CECIL GRACE, who was lost at sea in December, 1910, while competing for the De Forest prize; Mr. GERALD NAPIER (August 1st, 1911, at Brooklands); LIEUT. GAMMEL, one of the most promising officers of the Air Battalion, who fell at Hendon while testing a new machine (September 17th, 1911); and Mr. THOMAS RIDGE, whose

death took place under somewhat similar circumstances at Farnborough.

Among the many other notable victims were Mr. E. NIEUPORT, the famous constructor, who died on September 15th as a result of a fall while taking part in the manoeuvres of the Sixth Army Corps at Verdun; Mr. JOHN B. MOISANT, the American aviator (December 21st, 1910); M. LAFFONT, one of the most expert pilots of the Antoinette School; PIERRE-MARIE BOURNIGUE, the French monoplaneist (May 18th); and CAPT. ENGELHARDT, the first German who ever mounted an aeroplane, and one of the greatest pioneers of aviation. Capt. Engelhardt met his death at Johannisthal, on September 29th, while piloting a Wright biplane.

CLUBS AND SOCIETIES.

The most important body interested in the promotion of aviation is the Fédération Aéronautique Internationale, Paris, to which are affiliated the following national societies:—

Royal Aero Club of Great Britain, 166, Piccadilly, London.

Aéro Club de France, 35, Rue François 1er, Paris.

Aero Club of America, 29, West 396th Street, New York, U.S.A.

Deutscher Luftschiffer Verband, 21, Vosstrasse, Berlin, W. 9.

Aéro Club de Belgique, 6, Avenue Marnix, Brussels.

Società Aeronautica Italiana, 70, Via Muratte, Rome.

Aéro Club Imperial de Russia, 6, Mohawala, St. Petersburg.

The following is a list of the principal clubs in the British Isles:—

The Royal Aero Club, 166, Piccadilly, W.

The Aeronautical Society, 53, Victoria Street, S.W.

The Aerial League of the United Kingdom, Carlton House, Regent Street, W.

The Women's Aerial League of the British Empire, 227, Strand, W.C.

The Scottish Aeronautical Society, 185, Hope Street, Glasgow.

The Irish Aero Club, 34, Dawson Street, Dublin.

The Manchester Aero Club, 9, Albert Square, Manchester.

The Midland Aero Club, Grand Hotel, Birmingham.

The Bristol and West of England Aero Club, Star Life Buildings, Bristol.

The Northumberland Aero Club, 4, Rosebery Crescent, Jesmond, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

The Coventry Aeronautical Society, 18, Hertford Street, Coventry.

The Lancashire Aero Club, The Aero Club House, Blackpool.

AERODROMES AND FLYING SCHOOLS.

Brooklands, Weybridge, Surrey.—Schools: Bristol, Deperdussin, A. V. Roe, Nieuport, Hewlett and Blondeau, Flanders, Herbert Spencer, Universal Aviation Co., &c. *Hendon*.—Schools: Bleriot, Grahame-White, Valkyrie, Chanter. *Salisbury Plain*.—Schools: Army Ground, Bristol. *Eastchurch*, Isle of Sheppey: British Aero Club flying grounds. *Filey*.—School: Blackburn Aeroplane Co. For particulars apply to Manager, Balm Road, Leeds. *Freshfield*, near Liverpool.

Portholme, near Huntingdon. *Brighton-Shorcham*, Sussex. *Northfall Meadow*, Dover. *Beccles*, Suffolk. *Liverpool Aviation School*: Sandheys Avenue, Waterloo. *Llandudno* and North Wales Aerodrome. *Southport Aerodrome*. *Wolverhampton Aerodrome*. *Barrhead*, near Glasgow.—Aerodrome and flying school. Apply Scottish Aviation Co., 185, Hope Street, Glasgow. *Lanark*.—Ewen school. Tuition on Bleriot or Deperdussin monoplanes.

NEW CERTIFICATES FOR PILOTS.

The British Aero Club have decided to grant a special certificate to aviators who have passed the following tests:—

A.—Candidates must hold the Fédération Aéronautique Internationale aviator's certificate, and be entered on the competitors' register of the Royal Aero Club.

B.—The requirements are:—

(1) A cross-country flight, out and back, round a point situated at least 50 miles from the start. The turning point will be selected by the Royal Aero Club, and will not be indicated to the candidate until one

hour before the starting time selected by the candidate. This flight shall be completed within three hours of the selected starting time.

(2) A separate altitude flight of at least 1,000ft. rise, which shall be verified by recording barograph sealed by the observers before the start.

(3) To glide from a height of at least 500ft. above the ground to earth, with engine completely cut off, and alight under normal conditions within 100 yards from the starting point. This glide may, at the

candidate's option, be the conclusion of Test 2.

To secure the ordinary certificate granted by the British Aero Club in accordance with the regulations of the Fédération Aéronautique Internationale, candidates must accomplish the three following tests:—

(1) A. Two distance flights, consisting of at least 5 kil. (3 miles 185 yards), each in a closed circuit, the distance to be measured as described below.

B. One altitude flight, consisting of a minimum height of 50 metres (164ft.), which

may form part of one of the two flights prescribed above.

(2) The course on which the aviator accomplishes tests A must be marked out by two posts, situated not more than 500 metres (547 yards) apart.

(3) After each turn round one of the posts the aviator must change the direction when going round the second post, so that the circuit will consist of an uninterrupted series of five figures of "8."

(4) The distance flown shall be reckoned as if in a straight line from post to post.

BRITISH PRIZES FOR 1912.

British Empire Michelin Cup (No. 1).

—The holder of the cup for 1912 and the winner of the sum of £500 in cash, attached to the trophy, will be the competitor who, on October 31st, 1912, shall have accomplished the greatest distance on an aeroplane in flight without touching the ground. The minimum distance to be covered shall be 250 miles round two or more mark posts for the necessary number of circuits. It is possible that these conditions may be modified by the Aero Club, but due notice will, of course, be given to intending competitors.

British Empire Michelin Cup (No. 2).

—The Michelin Tyre Company has presented to the Royal Aero Club of the United Kingdom, for competition by British aviators, the sum of £1,800,

divided into three yearly awards as follows:—

£400 for the year 1911.

£600 for the year 1912.

£800 for the year 1913.

Army and Navy Aviation Prizes.

Mr. A. Mortimer Singer has presented to the Royal Aero Club the sum of £1,000 for competition by commissioned officers in His Majesty's Regular Army, the Royal Navy, and the Royal Marines on the active list. The prize will be divided as follows:—

Army £500

Navy and Marines £500

The winner to be the officer who, accompanied by a passenger, also in the Regular Service, makes on an aeroplane the longest cross-country flight between April 1st, 1911, and March 31st, 1912, both days inclusive. The flight must be confined to the British Isles.

AIRSHIPS AND FREE BALLOONS.

Except for the sensational but abortive attempt made towards the end of 1910 by an American aeronaut to cross the Atlantic from the United States to England, and two remarkable performances made recently by dirigibles in France and in Germany respectively, the history of the lighter-than-air machine for the past year is but a record of accidents and disasters. The most notable events are set down below in tabular form:—

May 4th. Wreck of the "Lebandy," the National Fund Airship at Farnborough. In the craft at the time of the accident were seven people, among whom M. Capazza, the pilot, M. Julliot, the designer of the vessel, and Major Sir A. Bannermann. The airship rose to a height of nearly 800ft., but in attempting a descent, the "Lebandy" crashed into a cluster of fir trees, the top branches of which pierced the envelope. The vessel then settled down, a total wreck, with one end of its rigid framework supported by the trees and the other end resting on the roof of a house. Fortunately the accident did not result in any loss of life.

May 15th. Reconstructed "Deutschland" again wrecked at Dusseldorf.

July 19th. "Clement Bayard IV," at La Molte Breuil, rises to a height of 6,560ft., which, it is claimed, is a record for dirigible balloons.

September 24th. Wreck of the British

Naval Dirigible No. 1 at Barrow-in-Furness. At the first attempt to make an ascent, the airship, which had cost the country a sum amounting to nearly £100,000, was seen to buckle. One of the balloonets burst and the vessel practically broke in two.

September 25th. During a two-hour speed trial, the French Military Dirigible, "Adjutant Reau," was timed to attain a speed of 55 kil. an hour. Previously to the trial the "Adjutant Reau" had accomplished the remarkable performance of remaining in the air 21h. 20m., covering a distance of 917.4 kil.

October 16th. Details are given of work done by the Zeppelin liner "Schwaben" during the 54 days she has been in service. In that period the "Schwaben" made 81 ascents, including nine long voyages, ranging from 120 to 240 miles. She has been in the air for 187 hours altogether, has covered 10,811 kil., and carried 1,675 passengers.

October 18th. Official results of the Gordon-Bennett Balloon Race, held in America, give the victory to Germany. Starting from Kansas City in the "Berlin II," Lieut. Gericke covered a distance of 440 miles, landing at Halcombe, Wisconsin. An American balloon, the "Buck Eye," was second with 360 miles, and a second German balloon being third with 350 miles.

Results of Latest Competitions.

British Empire Michelin Cup "No. 1."—October 29th, 1911: S. F. CODY, at Laffan's Plain, for a flight of 261 miles 800 yards in 1 h. 20m. Machine used: Cody biplane, fitted with a 60-80 h.p. Green motor. A sum of £500 in cash is attached to the trophy offered annually for the contest.

Winner in 1909-10: J. T. C. Moore-Brazon, on March 1st, 1910, at Eastchurch, for a flight of 10 miles.

Winner in 1910-11: S. F. Cody, on December 31st, 1910, at Laffan's Plain, for a flight of 185 miles 787 yards.

£44,000 Military Competition at Rheims.—The eliminating tests in the great military flying competition organised by the French Government were brought to a conclusion on October 31st, 1911. Out of 32 machines entered 10 successfully accomplished the tests, which included, among other conditions: (1) Alighting on and rising from ploughed fields; (2) carrying a load of 300 kilogrammes (660lbs.) over and above the requisite petrol, oil, water, &c.; (3) flying without a stop over a circular course, the machine carrying its full load for the purpose of testing its speed; (4) attaining, with the full load, a height of 500 metres (1,640ft.) within 15 minutes.

Among the successful competing aeroplanes were one Nieuport monoplane (piloted by Weymann), two Deperdussin monoplanes, two Bréguet biplanes, one Henry Farman biplane, and one Maurice Farman biplane.

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THE MOVEMENT OF WAGES.

Complete figures of wage movements in this country do not exist, but the Board of Trade has compiled a table of index numbers based on the movement of wages in agriculture, coal-mining, textiles, building, and engineering. 1900 was taken as the standard year. Thus—

| Year. | Index No. | Year. | Index No. |
|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
| 1875 | 90 | 1904 | 97 |
| 1885 | 84 | 1905 | 97 |
| 1895 | 89 | 1906 | 98 |
| 1900 | 100 | 1907 | 102 |
| 1901 | 99 | 1908 | 101 |
| 1902 | 98 | 1909 | 100 |
| 1903 | 97 | 1910 | 100 |

By comparing this table with the index numbers of prices on page 219 it will be seen that in these trades, taken as a whole, wages have not increased

since 1900, though the cost of living has jumped upwards about 10 per cent.

The general downward movement in wages which began in 1908 and continued during the greater part of 1909 gave place early in 1910 to a slight upward tendency, which was on the whole maintained during the remainder of the year, with the result that the general level of wages at the end of 1910 was, with two exceptions (1907 and 1908) higher than at the end of any year since 1893, when statistics of changes in rates of wages were first systematically collected. The net effect of the changes reported to the Board of Trade as taking effect in 1910 was an increase of £14,500 per week in the wages of 548,900 workpeople. In 1909 a net decrease of £68,900 per week was sustained by 1,154,800 workpeople.

TOWN PLANNING.

The Local Government Board have already given authority to the following local authorities to prepare a Town Planning Scheme under the Housing, Town Planning, &c., Act, 1909: Birmingham Corporation: (a) Quinton, Harborne, &c., Scheme, 2,320 acres; (b) East Birmingham Scheme, 1,442 acres. Chesterfield Corporation, 60 acres. North Bromsgrove Urban District Coun-

cil, 554 acres. Oldbury Urban District Council, 1,780 acres (approx.). Rochdale Corporation, 43 acres. Ruislip-Northwood Urban District Council, 5,906 acres. Applications have also been made by: Bournemouth Corporation, 202 acres. Hanwell Urban District Council (not stated). Liverpool Corporation, 88 acres. Middleton Corporation, 300 acres. Various other local authorities have schemes under consideration.

1911 IN THE CITY.

By the CITY EDITOR of the "DAILY NEWS."

The Banking World.

Financially, 1911 has been a very eventful year.

Banking, for example, on which the whole financial structure pivots, has encountered developments of exceptional significance. Witness the collapse of the Birkbeck Building Society, which, in conducting a banking business on "popular" lines, attempted to fill the wide gap between the ordinary savings bank and the great commercial institutions. Of even greater consequence has been the affair of the Yorkshire Penny Bank, though it did not at the time excite such general interest and comment. Neither of these institutions was of mushroom growth; both had progressed from small beginnings to a position of considerable magnitude. Briefly, they outgrew their original constitution; unlike the big joint stocks they proved unable to keep pace with the more exacting requirements of modern banking practice. In both instances the trouble originated in the market depreciation of gilt-edged stock, necessitating the constant provision out of profits for the consequential losses. Reasonably it may be asked why, if the commercial banks weathered the storm, such popular institutions failed to do so? But while the primary consideration of the commercial banks is the earning of profits for the shareholders, the objective of the other is to encourage thrift. The energies of the one are centred in the earning of profits in the financing of commerce or trade, a fluctuating but remunerative business. This they can do, not with the shareholder capital alone, but with the monies received in custody for safety and security. On the other hand, the "people's" bank possesses no capital in the real sense of the term. Their system is to accept money from the public, to whom they allow a fixed rate of interest. This is to encourage thrift. Such money is invested in stocks; the difference between the dividend earned and the rate of interest allowed to the depositors ought to provide sufficient to meet the expenses of management, any surplus being accumulated in order to provide against contingencies. While gilt-edged stock (British Funds, Consols, &c.) were what they were a few years ago, the system acted well enough, but the depreciation in market values that has occurred almost uninterruptedly since has actually entailed serious losses with which this co-operative savings bank system was inadequate to cope.

It was with the object of placing this Yorkshire Penny Bank on a sounder basis (at December 31st, 1910, it had £18,542,280 due to depositors, including interest) that practically all of the leading joint stock and kindred banking institutions of the country headed by the Bank of England, decided to act in unison. It was the most important development of recent years. The leading companies carrying on business in Yorkshire agreed to subscribe a sum of £2,000,000 in order to form a new company, to be called the Yorkshire Penny Bank, Ltd., having a capital paid up to the extent of £750,000, a reserve fund of £750,000, and an uncalled capital of £500,000, which agreed to take over the liabilities and assets of the Yorkshire Penny Bank. As to the vital question of the depreciation in securities an imposing array of London banks agreed to give individual guarantees to the new company for a very substantial total to provide for the possible future depreciation of securities beyond an agreed amount. It seems impossible to belittle the importance of this development in the banking world.

There is also the unfortunate collapse of that important international concern, the Bank of Egypt. The dividend record of the concern was a good one, but now shareholders have not only to face the loss of subscribed capital, but also will have to provide the uncalled liability of £12. 10s. per share, illustrating the risk of partly-paid-up shares. Practically all banks have such a reserved liability, which, by-the-way, is insurable. This is interesting.

Yet another regrettable incident of the banking world was the fact that one of those rapidly-disappearing provident institutions, the Stamford, Spalding, and Boston Bank, was obliged by force of circumstances to surrender its individuality and submit to absorption in Barclay & Co., Ltd. To quote the chairman: "We have taken this step reluctantly, not because we want to surrender our local independence, but because, after grave deliberation, we felt that it was not only advisable, but necessary, to strengthen subsidies by amalgamation with a strong London bank."

Of quite a different character, though of undoubted importance, is the other development in the banking world—the extension of English joint stock banks abroad. Of course, they have been represented abroad by agencies, but the decision of Lloyd's Bank, Ltd., the largest of joint stock institutions to possess a subsidiary in Paris, is the beginning, so it is thought, of a general movement in this direction. Some of the conservative bankers profess to believe that this "progressive move" is fraught with risks, a view which is not shared by other authorities.

British Securities.

The reasons contributing to the fall of Consols are dealt with at length on another page. But the whole of the Stock Exchange have had to contend less against the ominous aspect

assumed by the Morocco question, followed by the Turco-Italian trouble and the internal struggle in China. Capital is very susceptible, and the Franco-German tussle induced a fe

ing of extreme nervousness. The fact that these bickerings were protracted served to dissipate confidence, with the inevitable result that the propensity for utilising the proverbial stocking is increased.

The welcome change in the general attitude towards **British Railway securities** as investments was the result, not only of the growth of earnings coincident to the industrial activity of the country, but to the benefits that accrued to the companies from the policy initiated a year or two ago of working in co-operation. This resulted in the elimination of unremunerative competition and material economies in operating costs, hence the profits earned were substantially greater. Dividends consequently increased, and considerable sums were appropriated out of net revenue to the reserve funds and for providing for renewals, &c. But the determination of the men to struggle for better conditions caused, as is but natural, a revulsion of feeling; hence values crumbled. It is worth while to compare the dividends actually paid in respect of the first six months of 1911 with those of the corresponding period of preceding years. Of course, the first six months is the "lean" period, and that from July to December is the "fat" period, when the payments are higher.

Per cent. per annum.

| | 1904 | 1905 | 1906 | 1907 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 | 1911 |
|-------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| G.E. ... | 1½ | 1½ | 1½ | 1½ | 1 | 1½ | 1½ | 2½ |
| G.W. ... | 4 | 3½ | 3½ | 3½ | 3½ | 3½ | 4 | 4½ |
| L. & Y. ... | 3 | 3½ | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3½ | 3½ | 4½ |
| L.N.W. ... | 5 | 5 | 5½ | 5½ | 4½ | 4½ | 5½ | 6 |
| Mid. (def. st'ck) | 2 | 2 | 2½ | 2½ | 1½ | 1½ | 2½ | 3½ |
| N.E. ... | 5 | 4½ | 5½ | 5½ | 4½ | 5 | 5 | 5½ |

The optimistic feeling as to the improving position of Home Railways is

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

The number of **radiotelegrams** dealt with at the Post-office Coast Stations during the year shows a total increase of 15,808, the outward radiotelegrams to ships reaching a total of 5,640, and inward radiotelegrams from ships 34,161.

The revenue derived by the Post-office from these radiotelegrams was £7,941.

The Post office Stations at present open for general correspondence with ships at sea are as follows:—

| | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Caister (Norfolk). | Lizard (Cornwall). |
| North Foreland (Kent). | Seaford (Lancashire). |
| Niton (Isle of Wight). | Rosslare (Wexford). |
| Bolt Head (Devonshire). | Crookhaven (Cork). |
| Malin Head (Donegal). | |

Two additional Stations are to be provided; one, of medium range (about 250 miles), will be situated at or near Newcastle-on-Tyne. This station will eventually supersede the private station at Cullercoats, at present used for commercial purposes under provincial permission.

Arrangements were recently made for accepting radiotelegrams at Post-

shown by the following comparison of the level of prices during the year to date:—

| | Jan. 1 | Hil't | Low't | Sep. 25 |
|--------------------|--------|-------|-------|---------|
| Gt. Cen. Pref. Ord | 24½ | 37½ | 22½ | 28 |
| Gt. Eastern | 69½ | 79½ | 63 | 66½ |
| Gt. North. Defd. | 51½ | 57½ | 40½ | 50½ |
| Gt. Western | 125½ | 136 | 116½ | 120 |
| L. & N. Western | 138 | 151 | 131½ | 135½ |
| Midland Defd. | 65½ | 79½ | 65½ | 70½ |
| S. Eastern Defd. | 42 | 60 | 41 | 52½ |

The extent of the natural reaction from extreme optimism to normal reasoning in rubber shares is indicated by the following comparison of boom prices with the highest and lowest of 1911 to date:—

| | Hig't. | Hig't | Low't | Sep. 25 |
|------------------|--------|-------|-------|---------|
| Anglo Malay | 39/- | 27/6 | 15/- | 15/6 |
| Batu Caves | 19 | 16½ | 10½ | 9½ |
| Cicely | 66/3 | 52/6 | 27/6 | 27/6 |
| Consol Malay | 35/6 | 26/6 | 14/- | 14/- |
| Highlands & Land | 10 | 6½ | 3½ | 3½ |
| Linggi | 70/9 | 55/3 | 32/6 | 32/- |
| Malacca | 18½ | 10½ | 6½ | 8 |
| Vallambrosa | 65/- | 42/6 | 24/0 | 24/0 |

In the case of the **gold mining industry** of the Transvaal, it is found possible to treat at a profit gold-bearing ore that not so long ago was unprofitable to handle. The following statistics, prepared by the "Financial Times," gives the output of gold and the dividends declared by the Transvaal companies:—

| | Value of Gold. | Dividends declared. |
|------|----------------|---------------------|
| 1903 | 12,628,057 | 3,368,837 |
| 1904 | 16,023,883 | 3,934,958 |
| 1905 | 20,854,440 | 4,864,139 |
| 1906 | 24,616,704 | 5,741,761 |
| 1907 | 27,410,210 | 7,098,212 |
| 1908 | 29,986,469 | 8,757,882 |
| 1909 | 31,005,939 | 9,505,018 |
| 1910 | 31,995,286 | 9,130,958 |
| 1911 | 25,908,778* | 4,500,000* |

* Nine months.

† Approximately.

offices for transmission at the rate of 3s. a word by way of the Marconi Company's long-range station at Poldhu in Cornwall, when the ships for which they are intended are beyond the range of the Post-office Coast Stations. It is now possible to communicate from any Post-office in the United Kingdom with certain of the large Atlantic liners, fitted with Marconi long-distance apparatus, at any time during their voyage between this country and Canada or the United States. If the vessel has passed beyond the range of the Poldhu Station, the messages are transmitted by cable to the long-range station of the Marconi Company at Cape Cod, Massachusetts, and thence transmitted to the ships without additional charge.

The work of fitting up the apparatus for wireless telegraphy at the General Post-office is nearing completion, and the head-quarters of the telegraphic service will soon be in direct "wireless" communication with the outside world.

THE WORLD OF ART.

BY FRANK RINDER.

Should Britain follow the lead of Italy and introduce a Paccia law, or can any wise provision be made against the swift depletion of the historic art collections of this country? That question comes first, perhaps, in a survey of art matters during 1911. Initially it must be determined whether or not the competition for masterpieces of the past is "a mere craze," or, on the other hand, if the transfer to America or elsewhere of certain momentous works involves our country in real loss. An emphatic answer may be deduced from the robbery of Leonardo's "Mona Lisa." All have the opportunity to ponder, to profit by, the great poetry of Chaucer, of Shakespeare, of Milton. The "Mona Lisa" cannot be reproduced as is a poem. The disappearance of the picture from the Louvre means that Leonardo's genius, creatively potent, as revealed therein, no longer quickens through the eye, mind, heart, and spirit. Remove from the sphere of consciousness surviving examples of all art—architecture, sculpture, literature, music, the pictorial arts—and life would become how impoverished. I hold that reverence for great pictures of the past is as rational and well founded as is reverence for other achievements whose spirit by a process of interpenetration ministers to the most fundamental needs of humanity. The New World calls for pictorial treasure

to enrich the life of its people; American millionaires possess the wherewithal to obtain what they desire. Nevertheless, is it not a public duty to retain for England certain works still in English private collections?

Our National Gallery, taken as a whole, is the finest in the world; yet when, instead of being permanently housed there, "The Mill" went to America, the loss was incalculable. The legitimate purchase on behalf of the National Gallery of Mabuse's "Adoration of the Magi," superbly skilled and highly instructive though it be, is a poor set-off against the loss to this country of a landscape wherein are nobly uttered the fathoming power and the tenderness of Rembrandt. The enormous prices now ruling are a result of the vast accumulations of wealth. They should not cause thoughtful persons to condemn Old Masters or to suppose that the often exaggerated competition conflicts in the main with the support of modern art. Governments can do little or nothing until—and when will that be?—the governed awaken to the vital importance of this question. In addition to "The Mill" (£100,000). Mr. Widener secured Vermeer's exquisite "Woman Weighing Pearls," report says for about £65,000, while Mr. H. C. Friek paid some £80,000 for Velasquez's long-lost "Philip IV.," painted at Fraga in 1644.

The Housing of the National Collections.

In March, five new rooms, in the north-west of the National Gallery, fire-proofed and well lighted, were opened, and later final arrangements were made for the isolation of the whole building. Shortly the great additions to the British Museum, designed by Mr. J. J. Burnet, A.R.S.A., are to be available, and these will enhance the utility of that students' Mecca, whose collections were notably enriched by the generous Huth bequest of 50 rare books and MSS., selected by the Museum from the valuable library. Mr. Arthur Skinner died shortly before the opening in March of the wonderful Salting collection, with the acquisition of which for the Victoria and Albert Museum he was concerned. Knighthoods were conferred on Sydney Colvin and Dr. G. F. Warner, Keepers respectively of the Prints and of the MSS. in the British Museum; on R. S. Lorimer, architect of the Thistle Chapel; on Thomas Brock, R.A., and Goscombe John, R.A., sculptors; and on the learned critic, Claude Phillips, who retired from Keepership of the Wallace Gallery. Sir Claude Phillips's place was taken by that brilliant sensitivist, Mr. D. S. MacColl, who at the Tate Gallery was succeeded by Mr. Charles Aitken, widely appreciated for his 10 years'

conduct of the Whitechapel Gallery.

In Edinburgh the Royal Scottish Academy, inaugurating its dignified new home, gave an object lesson in spacing and general arrangement to organisers of exhibitions of modern works; and on July 19th the King presided at the dedication of the Chapel of the Thistle Knights, which ranks high among the achievements of our time as an issue of loyal and zealous co-operation between architect, stone and wood carvers, workers in stained glass and metal.

Mr. Walter Greaves, "pupil of Whistler," till now unknown save in Chelsea, made his début as an old New Master at the Goupil Gallery, as at the Chenil Gallery did the "Post-Impressionist" sculptor, Mr. Eric Gill, two of whose most remarkable works were acquired by the Contemporary Art Society. Deserving of support is the Walpole Society, established by Mr. A. J. Finberg to promote the study and appreciation of British art. In electing to associate ship Messrs. D. Y. Cameron, Mark Fisher, John Lavery, and C. H. Shannon, the Royal Academy hinted at further emancipation. At Christie's Raeburn's "Mrs. Robertson Williamson" made 22,300 guineas, this increasing the auction "record" for a picture in Britain by 8,250 guineas. The Richard Bennett collection of Oriental porcelain was sold to an Englishman for about £300,000.

Public Monuments and Historic Buildings.

Seldom has there been greater need in London than during 1911 for the intervention in public affairs of an enlightened Ministry of Fine Arts. Large sums of money are expended on our national monuments, prominent artists are employed, yet again and again these efforts seem fore-doomed to ineffectiveness. No authoritative person would to-day venture to cite the Albert Memorial as an artistic triumph, and many later if somewhat less ambitious ventures are no worthier as sculpturesque expressions of important themes. The national memorial to Queen Victoria, which King Edward did not live to unveil, has failed to add a great work of art to those in the Metropolis. Again the endeavour has been to represent much that is appropriate, and this has been skillfully accomplished by Sir Thomas Brock, R.A. The lack of impressiveness is due in part to the lack of a governing idea, whereto detail is strictly subordinated. With regard to the projected memorial to King Edward VII., the location of which has aroused controversy, the "Burlington Magazine" rightly urged that it would be a capital mistake not to throw this open to public competition. "The occasions are so rare on which any form of national competition can be encouraged that to refuse to the many capable artists this chance, however slight it may be, of expressing their views and

ideas of such an artistic creation is a short-sighted policy, which goes some way to prove the contempt in which British art is held by the governing classes of this country." The choice of Mr. Bertram Mackennal, A.R.A., without any such competition, did not inspire general confidence, particularly in view of his disappointing designs for the new coins and stamps. The question of the St. Paul's Bridge is another in which public art-interests require to be safeguarded. Again, with certain notable exceptions, what a sorry spectacle gala London presented to colonial and foreign visitors at the time of the Coronation festivities. Yet before there can be any effective Ministry of Fine Arts, to carry out a broad constructive policy, national spirit on the subject must be awakened. It will be instructive to see what Rodin makes of his Whistler memorial for the Chelsea Embankment, upon which for several years he has been engaged. Outside London, the Tattershall "tragedy," namely, the sale and spiriting away of the historic Castle, including its four beautiful 15th century fireplaces, naturally provoked emphatic censure from various quarters. The National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty, failing initially to recognise the importance of the situation, made a belated and ineffective effort to save the building.

THE GROWTH OF POST OFFICE BUSINESS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

LETTERS, POSTCARDS, BOOK PACKETS, TELEGRAMS, TELEPHONE MESSAGES, MONEY ORDERS, POSTAL ORDERS, SAVINGS BANK DEPOSITS.

| | 1900-1. | 1905-6. | 1908-9. | 1909-10. | 1910-11. |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Millions. | Millions. | Millions. | Millions. | Millions. |
| Letters | 2,323 | 2,707 | 2,907 | 2,947 | 3,047 |
| " per head of pop. .. | 56 | 62 | 65 | 65 | 68 |
| Newspapers, circulars, &c. | 900 | 1,077 | 1,155 | 1,173 | 1,240 |
| Postcards | 419 | 800 | 860 | 866 | 871 |
| Telegrams, inland | 81 | 80 | 75 | 76 | — |
| " foreign | 10 | 12 | 13 | 15 | — |
| Telephone messages: | | | | | |
| Trunk calls | 9 | 18 | 23 | 26 | — |
| Parcels | 79 | 100 | 112 | 117 | 121 |
| | 1900-1. | 1905-6. | 1908-9. | 1909-10. | 1910-11. |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Amount of Money Orders issued | £33,630,466 | £36,357,316 | £39,316,568 | £39,758,631 | £41,000,676 |
| Colonial Money Orders .. | 449,483 | 646,821 | 862,163 | 884,534 | 1,040,762 |
| Foreign Money Orders | 1,080,975 | 1,409,749 | 1,513,333 | 1,556,939 | 1,742,173 |
| Postal Orders | 29,761,000 | 38,019,000 | 44,059,000 | 45,557,000 | 47,212,000 |
| Savings bank deposits | 40,516,434 | 42,300,617 | 44,770,782 | 45,300,525 | 46,205,870 |

The Post Office and Boy Labour.—Of the 15,000 or 16,000 boys in the employ of the Post Office, about 4,000 have been hitherto discharged every year because no work could be found for them. Mr. Samuel stated in his speech on the Post Office Vote in May that he hoped to remove from the Post Office the

reproach of being the largest purveyor of blind-alley employment for lads. The length of service of boy messengers is to be extended up to the age of 19, so that it is hoped to reduce the annual number of dismissals from 4,000 to 1,700 immediately, and at an early date practically to abolish the system.

THE LITERARY YEAR.

By R. A. SCOTT JAMES.

It would be too much to expect that every year should see the rise of a new and hitherto unheard-of genius. Certainly during the last year there has been no striking emergence of a writer hitherto unknown. But there is no occasion to regard the case of modern literature as desperate. If there have been a few men, formerly regarded as promising, whose reputations have been exploded, there are also a few who have now added to and established their reputations. It is also possible to trace new intellectual influences appearing explicitly in philosophy, and implicitly in the works of men concerned with the art rather than the theory of life.

Last year I commented on the growing influence of the philosophy of William James. This year, in England, his influence has been succeeded to a great extent by that of the Frenchman, **M. Henri Bergson**. This change indicates something far more extensive than a movement in formal philosophy. William James's attitude, which was on the whole negative, and therefore inconclusive, was part and parcel of a general revolt against a kind of idealism which shirked fact or experience, which made no compromise with science, and gave no satisfaction to the common man's demand for truth. Writers like Mr. Shaw, Mr. Wells, Mr. Galsworthy, and M. Brieux represented on the practical side what

William James represented on the theoretical side. Their appeal was to experience; their attitude was provocative; their work was, on the whole destructive.

Now I believe that the enthusiasm with which M. Bergson's philosophy has during this year been discussed in England is not due merely to the fact that translations of his work have been published in this country. William James's revolt, taken by itself, meant intellectual anarchy; Mr. Shaw and Mr. Wells, in spite of their protestations to the contrary, tended towards ethical anarchy. M. Bergson, however, is reconstructive. In his hands philosophy, no longer opposed to science, co-operates with it. This is not the place to discuss the theory of **Vitalism**. It is sufficient to say that it accepts the conclusions of science; it deepens the conception of experience actual and possible; it offers scope to the religious and artistic valuations of life; and it is significant that the author who this year has written the most complete work on "Mysticism," Miss Evelyn Underhill (Mrs. Stuart Moore), finds in the Vitalistic philosophy a starting point for the theory of religious mysticism. I might add that the advance of scientific psychology, as an example of which we might take Mr. Havelock Ellis's recent "The World of Dreams," is logically parallel to that of the Vitalistic philosophy.

Some Notable Reputations.

I said that there are a few authors who have this year added to and established their reputations.

Amongst novelists the most notable of these are **Mr. Arnold Bennett** and **Mr. E. M. Forster**, the former with his book "Hilda Lessways," the latter with "Howard's End." It would be misleading to press too far the argument of progression as exemplified by these or other authors. But it is impossible not to notice that these authors do take up an intellectual attitude towards society, which does not stop at mere antagonism and destructive criticism. **Mr. Bennett** owes not a little to Mr. Wells; he has painted, as Mr. Wells has done, the picture of a crumbling England, changing, but undirected in its change. But in his last novel he shows us purposeful, exuberant individuals, full of individual idealism; a nation of individuals each passionately intent upon personal ideals. It is not extravagant perhaps to see in "Hilda Lessways" a view of life traceable to the same source as that from which the theory of "vitalism" springs. And so, too, in "Howard's End." **Mr. Forster** owes much to Mr. Galsworthy. He, too, has

criticised the social order, and exposed its rigidity, its inelasticity, the unfitness of the "code." But, like M. Bergson, he is a reconciler; he brings in the new world to redress the balance of the old; he brings it in, not to destroy, but to revive.

Many will object to any attempt to pigeon-hole Mr. Bennett and Mr. Forster as exponents of leading ideas or trends of thought. But there are few who will question that they have written books far in advance of anything they have done before, and that they have won definite positions in contemporary letters.

There are others who have surpassed their previous best. Many critics have declared that **Mr. Chesterton's** stirring ballade is the greatest thing he has done, the thing most likely to live. **Mr. Lascelles Abercrombie** has more than maintained his position in poetry. "Mary and the Bramble" was a singularly beautiful form, and "The Sale of Saint Thomas" was daring in conception and virile in execution. I have always maintained that **Mr. John Masefield** was primarily a poet, and it is to poetry that this year he has been seriously turning his attention.

It would not be right to regard the mass of books which are issued in ever-increasing numbers as a sign of increasing mental activity, for the purveying of literature is a commerce. But there has been much research, much good historical and biographical writing, much systematisation of knowledge. Under the last head may be included the new edition of the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and the new volumes of the "Cambridge Modern History." Mr. George Trevelyan has concluded his brilliant "Life of Caribaidi." Lord Rosebery's "Life of Chatham" has been followed by Mr.

Holland Rose's comprehensive study of "Pitt the Younger." Mr. Monypenny has completed and issued his official "Life of Disraeli."

Mr. Joseph Conrad, Mr. Wells, Mr. Shaw, Mr. Henry James, and Mr. Galsworthy have all produced representative volumes, and Mr. Percival Gibbon should be mentioned as a novelist who has won for himself no mean a position by the publication of "Margaret Harding." In these and in other fields of literary activity 1911 may be regarded, not as illuminating or exceptional, but a good average year, not to be despised.

POLAR TRAVEL AND EXPLORATION.

The Race for the South Pole.

Four expeditions are definitely afoot at the time of writing for the discovery of the geographical South Pole, within 111 miles of which Sir Ernest Shackleton travelled when he reached the magnetic South Pole, at latitude $38^{\circ} 23'$, in October, 1908.

The explorers are **Captain Scott**, whose previous work preceded Shackleton's famous trip; **Capt. Raold Amundsen**, the distinguished Norwegian traveller, who was the first to accomplish the North-west passage; **Lieut. Filchner**, of the German General Staff; and **Dr. Douglas Mawson**, who left London in July to conduct the Australian Antarctic Expedition. There had been a Japanese party, but this failed on account of its inadequate equipment.

Towards the £50,000 which the Scott enterprise was estimated to cost, the British Government contributed £20,000.

With the marvellous advances made by science in recent years, it is practically certain that one at least of these expeditions will bring the Polar region out of its mystery.

For the first time practical use is to be made of a *flying machine*. One does not forget the attempt made by Wellman, the American, to conquer the Arctic by airship; but, seeing how complete have been his failures in this direction, and seeing also that the Zeppelin balloon enterprise, contemplated some years ago, appears to have been stillborn, it seems safe to assume that a lighter than air vehicle will enable man to rival the exploits of Peary and Shackleton. Dr. Mawson's proposed use of a Vicker's monoplane, so constructed that it may act as a motor-sleigh and aeroplane by turns, is an ingenious idea which should be of enormous help in overcoming the tremendous obstacles of rough ground and hummocky ice which have made such calls upon the time, labour and endurance of previous explorers. Another novelty is the possibility that *wireless communication* may be established between the Polar regions and the outer world.

None of the expeditions aims merely at the historic distinction of being first at the South Pole—with Dr. Mawson, indeed, this is understood to be a secondary matter.

Each party hopes that its endeavours will prove of scientific and commercial value; and in this connection Shackleton's reported discovery of coal measures at least 1,500 feet thick, in Latitude 85° S., may be recalled.

Perhaps the Australian enterprise is better equipped, from the point of view of purely scientific observation, than any of the others. Dr. Mawson (who was a member of the last Shackleton party) hopes to make a complete coastal survey between Cape Adair and Gauss Berg, and for this purpose he proposed to land parties of scientists, with stores and huts, at three points between these places. It was his desire to complete the magnetic charting of the region north of the south magnetic pole.

There are fifty men in Dr. Mawson's party, every one, it is said, a specialist in some branch of science; and most of them were recruited from the universities of Australia and New Zealand. The Royal Geographical Society gave a grant of £500 towards the cost of this expedition.

Amundsen's expedition was intended originally for the Arctic, and there was some surprise when it became known, early in the year, that the Norwegian (about whose reported design of employing specially trained Polar bears nothing has been heard recently) was joining in the race for the South Pole.

Lieut. Filchner's attempt to achieve Antarctic honours for Germany is being made from the "Weddell Sea," where the "Deutschland" lay, according to latest information. This is on the side of the Pole nearest South America—opposite the base of the Scott expedition. Oceanographical researches in the South Atlantic are part of the objects of the German explorers. **The Japanese expedition**, under Lt. Shirase, with 27 men and a cheap old schooner of 150 tons, was not taken very seriously in scientific circles, though the commander was a man of experience who had incurred himself to hardship, and the only survivor of the 1893 expedition to the Kurile island. Lt. Shirase's idea was to land on the Great Ice Barrier, near King Edward VII. Land, where no one hitherto had succeeded in landing.

Captain Scott and the Voyage of the "Terra Nova."

Capt. Scott, whose expedition was the first in the field, sailed in the "Terra Nova," a barque-rigged whaler of 750 tons, and about 25 years old. She had been engaged in the sealing trade off Newfoundland until, in 1905, she was chartered by the Admiralty as relief ship to the "Discovery." The "Terra Nova" left London under Lieut. Pennell for New Zealand in 1910, Capt. Scott having arranged to join her in the Antipodes; but, with his special personal knowledge of the difficulties of the Polar journey and with the information obtained from Sir Ernest Shackleton's "farthest south" exploit, Capt. Scott did not anticipate beginning the serious part of the adventure before October, 1911. An ideal day for reaching the South Pole, he said, would be December 22nd, when the sun achieved its maximum altitude.

The scientific objects of Capt. Scott's expedition are to explore King Edward VII. Land, to continue the survey of Victoria Land, to examine the Great Ice Barrier formation with a view to settling the question whether the ice is gradually receding, and to make meteorological, magnetic, and biological observations.

Capt. Scott himself, after his journey in the "Discovery" (by which he reached latitude $82^{\circ} 16' 35''$ S., at the close of 1902), formed the conclusion that the greater part of the Ice Barrier is afloat. "Strange as it is," he said, "to imagine that the sea should run beneath such a solid sheet for so many hundreds of miles, I have yet to learn any reasonable argument against such an idea."

In the Shackleton expedition ponies had to be killed for food, and 1,300 of the 1,700 miles journey across the ice were made without ponies, the men having to drag the sledges themselves. Capt. Scott proposed to use Manchurian ponies for transport to the foot of the glaciers, but has with him specially designed motor sledges, with which he hopes to solve the transport problem. The first part of his "dash," he has explained, must be over the plateau of the Great Barrier, the second a climb through mountain passes, and the third across a lofty inland plain; and he expressed some slight hope that ponies, dogs, or motor-sledges might traverse the disturbed regions of the glacier.

"Perhaps more on account of the animals than the men," he explained, "he did not propose to make the dash before October."

The "Terra Nova" had a bad start when, having left New Zealand on November 29th, 1910, huge waves washed away part of her bulwarks within the first week of her voyage. From December 9th, 1910, she spent 21

days in making 380 miles, through a record extent of pack ice. In January the expedition made its winter headquarters at Cape Evans, in McMurdo Sound; and, while the ship proceeded eastward to survey the Ice Barrier and to endeavour unsuccessfully to set a party ashore at King Edward VII. Land, Capt. Scott went over the ice by sledge southwards. Meanwhile, a party was put ashore, under Lieut. Campbell, at Cape Adair, and the "Terra Nova" came back to New Zealand (under Lieut. Pennell), with a request from Capt. Scott for Indian mules, as these animals had served so well in the high altitudes of Tibet. Capt. Scott, obviously, had determined that if his 1911 effort failed he would wait a year, if necessary, to make a second. New mountainous land, it was reported, had been discovered at $69^{\circ} 50' S.$ and $163^{\circ} 20' S.$

Already the Scott expedition had come into touch with that conducted by Capt. Amundsen, and friendly visits were exchanged when the "Terra Nova" met the "Fram" in the Bay of Whales early in 1911. The famous Norwegian Polar ship, having returned to Buenos Ayres for stores in February (when Capt. Nilsson was decidedly reticent about the progress of the preliminaries) left in October to rejoin Capt. Amundsen in the Antarctic, and the general activities among the explorers during that month indicated that the race was likely to be a very keen one indeed.

With regard to Polar enterprise in general, it may be said that the authenticity of Peary's claim to have reached the North Pole appears to have survived criticism and to have been accepted by all authorities. The experts of the Geodetic Survey at Washington declare that he came within 16 to 10 miles of the Pole. Dr. Jean Charcot, of the "Pourquoi-Pas?" Antarctic expedition was awarded the Royal Geographical Society's medal in recognition of his valuable work.

Grave anxiety was felt at the close of the year with regard to the fate of Mikkelsen, the Danish explorer, who set out for the Arctic circle originally to look for traces of another Danish explorer, Eriksen, whose death has been considered certain. Mikkelsen spent the whole of the winter of 1910-11 in the Arctic with only one companion, and there was the greatest doubt whether he could possibly obtain provisions to last him another winter, no news having been received of him for months. In 1912, Mr. Borup, who was with Peary proposes to conduct an American expedition to the Arctic, his idea being to explore Crockerland, which Peary thought he sighted in 1906, but which no one has ever reached.

A. T. M. BORTHWICK.

SPORT IN 1911.

British Games and British Players.

Sport continues to monopolise the leisure time of the majority of the British people from their early youth to their middle age. The games of cricket and football continue to be the leading spectacular sports, but of actual participants golf is claiming more new adherents than is any other pastime. At the same time cycling, hockey, lawn tennis, lacrosse, motoring, motor-cycling, and the more exclusive outdoor and indoor games and recreations preserve their firm holds upon the affections of the public.

Golf.

During the year 1911 the Royal and Ancient game of golf made greater strides than in any previous year, although 1910 had been a record period in the matter of increased popularity of the links. The playing of good golf demands extraordinary skill on account of its peculiar charm and its health-giving opportunities. The game appeals to hundreds of thousands of adults throughout the world, who can never rank in the first class of exponents. The advantages of golf over every other game are that it can be played at any period of the year, at any hour of the day between dawn and dusk, and in all weathers.

Mr. HAROLD H. HILTON proved to be the leading amateur of the year. After winning the *Amateur Championship* for the third time, by defeating Mr. E. A. LASSEN in the final tie, at Prestwick, on June 2nd (by 4 and 3), Mr. HILTON visited the United States during the month of September, and besides winning the *Amateur Championship of America*, he was successful in the only other important open event he entered for. Mr. HILTON has twice been British Open Champion and is now generally regarded as being the most accomplished amateur player in the history of the game. HARRY VARDON, the greatest player of all time, won the *Open Championship* at Sandwich after a tie with ARNAUD MASSY, of France, Mr. HILTON being third, only one stroke behind the two famous professionals over 72 holes. Later MASSY won the *French Championship* against the whole of the leading British professionals. Miss DOROTHY I. CAMPBELL, now of Hamilton, Canada, but who was born and lived in Scotland, won the *British Ladies' Championship* for the second time. Miss Campbell has also twice held the *American Ladies' Championship*. In the *British Final*, at Portrush, Ireland, she defeated Miss VIOLET HEZLET, of the Royal Portrush Club, by 3 up and 2 to play. The *Professional Tournament* was won by JAMES BRAID, the Walton Heath professional, who, over his own course, defeated EDWARD RAY, of Ganton, in the final tie by one hole. VARDON experienced one of his most successful years, as besides his championship triumph he secured several valuable open tournaments in various parts of the kingdom. Like Mr. HILTON, GEORGE DUNCAN visited America (in September and October), and there established many record scores upon strange links and courses. Scotland defeated England by five matches to four in the *Amateur International Match*, at Prestwick; England defeated Scotland by five matches to four in the final of the *Ladies' International Match*, at Portrush; and Professionals defeated Amateurs by eight matches to one in foursome play, at Sandwich.

Cricket.

The first-class cricket season of 1911 will be remembered chiefly by the magnificent weather by which it was attended throughout. The *County Championship* had a sensational and unexpected ending, Warwickshire securing first place for the first time in the history of the tournament.

The abnormal weather was reflected in the first-class averages for the season, as the scoring in a collective sense was exceptionally heavy. Curiously, however, no individual batsman approached the aggregates obtained in previous years. The leading batsmen and bowlers were:—

| | BATTING. | | | Most in an Inn. | Aver- age. |
|------------------|---------------|-------|-------|-----------------|------------|
| | Times not out | Inns. | Runs. | | |
| C. B. Fry | 26 | 2 | 1,728 | 258* | 72·00 |
| P. Mead | 52 | 5 | 2,562 | 223 | 54·51 |
| R. H. Spooner .. | 45 | 0 | 2,312 | 224 | 51·37 |
| P. Perrin | 27 | 2 | 1,281 | 114 | 51·24 |
| Kinneir | 36 | 3 | 1,629 | 268* | 49·36 |
| Hayward | 51 | 6 | 2,149 | 202 | 47·75 |
| P. F. Warner .. | 51 | 5 | 2,123 | 244 | 46·15 |
| Tarrant | 48 | 4 | 2,030 | 207* | 46·13 |
| Hardstaff | 40 | 6 | 1,547 | 145 | 45·50 |

BOWLING.

| | Overs. | Mdns. | Runs. | Wkts. | Avg. |
|-----------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Thompson .. | 735·5 | 199 | 1,889 | 113 | 16·71 |
| Haigh | 674·3 | 124 | 1,684 | 97 | 17·36 |
| Dean | 1,295·5 | 324 | 3,191 | 183 | 17·42 |
| Hearne (J. T.) | 1,041 | 345 | 2,134 | 122 | 17·49 |
| Tarrant | 860·1 | 196 | 2,135 | 111 | 19·23 |
| Blythe | 1,039·3 | 254 | 2,675 | 138 | 19·38 |
| Smith (W. C.) | 1,283·4 | 368 | 3,223 | 160 | 20·14 |
| F. R. Foster .. | 952·1 | 183 | 2,864 | 121 | 20·31 |
| Field | 866·5 | 171 | 2,975 | 146 | 20·37 |
| Hirst | 1,096 | 231 | 2,796 | 137 | 20·40 |

It will be gathered that, in point of average, C. B. Fry stood out by himself as the best batsman of the year. Amongst all-round players, however, F. R. FOSTER, the young Warwickshire captain, was the man of the season, his efforts having much to do with his county winning the Championship. During the season 257 scores of 100 and over were made—216 in county championship matches and 41 in other first-class games. P. MEAD headed the list with nine centuries; C. B. FRY, R. H. SPOONER, and G. L. JESSOP each scored seven; DENTON, KINNEIR, P. A. PERRIN, and WOOLLEY six each; and HAYWARD, HARDSTAFF, RHODES, SEYMOUR, VINE, TARRANT, P. F. WARNER, and C. J. B. WOOD five each.

In the autumn an English team under the captaincy of P. F. WARNER left for Australia to contest five Test Matches with the Australians early in 1912.

Football.

The football season, under both the Association and Rugby codes, runs out of one calendar year into another, beginning in September and ending on the last day of the following April. The records referred to below, therefore, relate to the season 1910-11. Under Association rules, the *English Cup Competition*, which is the greatest tournament of the season, was won by BRADFORD CITY (for the first time), who defeated NEWCASTLE UNITED (holders) in the replayed final tie by

one goal to nil, at Old Trafford, Manchester, after a drawn game between the teams at Crystal Palace. MANCHESTER UNITED won the *English League Championship* for the second time. WEST BROMWICH ALBION won the championship of the *Second Division*, and, along with BOLTON WANDERERS, who were second, secured promotion to the First Division in the places of BRISTOL CITY and NOTTINGHAM FOREST, who by reason of finishing the last two on the First Division table were relegated to the Second Division. SWINDON won the *Championship* of the *Southern League*, to which READING and STOKE won promotion at the expense of SOUTH-END UNITED and PORTSMOUTH. GLASGOW RANGERS won the *Scottish League Championship*, and BELFAST GLENTORAN the *Irish League Championship*. GLASGOW CELTIC defeated HAMILTON ACADEMICALS at Ibrox Park, Glasgow (2-1) after a drawn game (0-0) on the same ground, in the final round of the *Scottish Cup Tournament*. WREXHAM (holders) defeated CONNAR'S QUAY (6-0) in the final tie of the *Welsh Cup Tournament*, at Wrexham; and SHELBORNE defeated BOHEMIANS (2-1) in the final tie of the *Irish Cup Tournament*, at Dublin.

ENGLAND won the *International Championship Tournament*, in which the whole of the results were as follows:—

| | 1911 | At | Goals. | Goals. |
|-----------------|------|----------|--------|------------|
| Jan. 28—Belfast | | Wales | .2 | Ireland .1 |
| Feb. 11—Derby | | England | 2 | Ireland .1 |
| Mar. 6—Cardiff | | Wales | .2 | Scotland 2 |
| " 13—New Cross | | England | 3 | Wales ...0 |
| " 18—Glasgow | | Scotland | 2 | Ireland .0 |
| April 1—Everton | | England | 1 | Scotland 1 |

| | | P. | W. | D. | L. | F. | A. | PTS. |
|-------------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|------|
| 1. England | | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 2 | 5 |
| 2. Scotland | | 3 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. Wales | | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 3 |
| 4. Ireland | | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 6 | 0 |

Amateur F.A.

This rival body of the ENGLISH F.A. stipulates for pure amateurism and has come to stay. During the season of 1910-11 its representatives engaged in matches with the following results:—

| | 1910. | At | | |
|------------------|-------|---------|----|------------|
| Oct. 29—Prague | | England | .2 | Bohemia 1 |
| Dec. 1—Cambridge | | North | .4 | South .2 |
| " 26—Ramsgate | | London | .1 | Paris ...0 |

1911.
Jan. 12—Tufnell Park England .4 Wales .0
Mar. 23—Paris England .3 France .1
OLD MALVERNANS won the *Senior Challenge Cup*, defeating the CASUALS in the final tie by three goals to two. CITY ALBION won the *Junior Cup*, and REPTON OLD BOYS the *Dunn Cup*. The *Southern Amateur League Championship* was won by NEW CRUSADERS for the fourth season in succession—since its foundation in 1907-8.

Rugby Football.

The feature of an interesting Rugby season was the recovery by Wales of the *International Championship*. The representatives of the Principality defeated England by 15 points to 11, Scotland by the record away score of 32 points to 10, and Ireland by 16 points to nothing, and thus became "triple crown" winners for the seventh time in their career. Ireland, so victorious over England and Scotland, did better than expected. England, the previous year's champions, sadly disappointed their supporters; while Scotland not only lost the whole of the tournament games, but were also beaten by

France. The competition table worked out as follows:—

| | Won. | Lost. | For. | Ag't. | Pts. |
|----------|------|--------|-------|-------|------|
| Wales | | 3 .. 0 | .. 63 | 21 .. | 6 |
| Ireland | | 2 .. 1 | .. 19 | 26 .. | 4 |
| England | | 1 .. 2 | .. 24 | 26 .. | 2 |
| Scotland | | 0 .. 3 | .. 28 | 61 .. | 0 |

The *County Championship* was once again won by Devon, though a supplementary match with Cornwall was necessary before the Devonians could claim the premiership in their section. Then having disposed of the Midland Counties (South-Eastern Champions by six points to three, in the semi-final, they met Yorkshire, at Kirkstall, the home county losing by 12 points to three. The *Inter-University* match resulted in the triumph of Oxford by 23 points to 18.

The previous year's standard was maintained in club football, with the provincial again stronger than the metropolitan teams—with the possible exception of the Harlequins, who, if not quite so brilliant as in former seasons, again experienced a successful year. Northampton, Leicester, Devon Albion, and Gloucester were the pick of the provincial sides. The (unofficial) *Championship of Wales* was won by Neath, with Swansea and Cardiff close up.

Hockey.

The supremacy of England in the International matches of the hockey year was maintained, and the only check to an all-conquering career was that administered by Ireland, who effected a creditable draw of two goals all, in Dublin. Wales were beaten at Llandudno by 7-0, Scotland at Bath by 5-0, and France at Folkestone by 4-0; whilst "An England XI," journeyed to Brussels and won matches against Belgium (13-0) and Germany (5-2). If the game made no sensational progress it certainly did not suffer from a backward movement, and, generally speaking, the usual standard of excellence was reached, whilst half-back play touched a very high level. As the popularity of most other sports is heightened by cup and league contests, it was creditable to hockey that it held its own whilst strictly adhering to its principles in regard to the prohibition of competitions. On this score there was a little unrest, and the Council of the H.A. considered it necessary to issue a manifesto, wherein it was set forth that they would brook no obstruction to the policy that had prevailed for 27 years, viz., "That the game shall be retained in England in its present form as a pure amateur sport, played as a game of skill for the sake of the game." Hockey showed no sign of waning popularity at the Universities, although Oxford adhered to the "Half Blue," whilst Cambridge again wore the "Full Blue." The inter-Varsity was won by the Cantabs by four goals to one, the Oxonians, who had not played so regularly together, failing to realise expectations. The brilliant captaincy and centre-half-back play of S. H. Stevens, contributed largely to the success of the Light Blues. Stevens was afterwards chosen for the International matches with Scotland and Ireland. The annual match between the Royal Navy and the Army, played at Aldershot and won by the former by three goals to one. A satisfactory sign was the increased support accorded to the game by the Public Schools.

Lawn Tennis.

In many respects the lawn tennis year was more noteworthy than its immediate predecessor. In April the *Covered Courts Championship* went

to France for the first time, and was brilliantly won at Queen's Club by A. H. GOBERT, a very young player, who, two months later, at Wimbledon, helped MAX DEUGIS, the best of the French players, to secure the All England *Doubles Championship*. This striking advance of Continental players at the expense of English talent naturally revived the interest in hard court play, by which means the Continental exponents of the game keep in constant practice, and it was not surprising that the year closed with an enthusiastic movement towards making lawn tennis an all-the-year-round game in England. In a record summer season—brilliantly fine—the game naturally enjoyed increasing popularity, and there was a welcome advance in the general standard of play after the lean time of 1910. A. F. WILDING, the New Zealander, retained the *Singles Championship* in a match prematurely terminated by the challenger, H. ROPER BARRETT, being overcome by head prostration, and retiring with the scores at two sets all. Easily first amongst the lady players, Mrs. LAMBERT-CHAMBERS successfully retained the *Ladies' Championship* with a splendid victory in the challenge round over Miss D. BOOTHBY, who, although playing well, failed to secure a game in the two sets. The *Mixed Doubles Championship* was won by T. M. MAVROGORDATO and Mrs. PARTON, who beat a hitherto invincible pair, S. N. DORREST and Mrs. LAMBERT-CHAMBERS; and the *Ladies' Doubles Championship* fell to Mrs. LARCOMBE and Miss W. A. LONGHURST. The British Isles, whose representatives were C. P. DIXON, A. H. LOWE, and A. E. BEAMISH, were beaten in New York by America (W. A. LARNED, R. D. LITTLE, T. C. BUNDY, and M. E. MCLOUGHLIN), in the preliminary tie of the *Davis Cup Competition*, by four matches to one, the doubles being won by DIXON and BEAMISH.

Chess.

One of the chief events in the chess world during 1911 has been the debut of JOSE R. CAPABLANCA, the young Cuban master, in *International Tournaments*. Playing at San Sebastian against a field including most leading masters, CAPABLANCA secured first place, an achievement comparable only with that of PILLSBURY in the *Hastings Tournament* of 1895. A match between CAPABLANCA and Dr. LASKER, for the *Championship of the World*, has since been projected, but, as usual, the preliminary arrangements have proved difficult of adjustment. A great *International Tournament*, at Carlsbad, was won by RICHARD TEICHMANN. The *British Championship Tournament*, at Glasgow, resulted in a tie for chief honours between Mr. H. E. ATKINS—so often the victor in these contests—and Mr. F. D. YATES, a Yorkshire player, who has shown great improvement during the last year or two, and of whom yet more distinguished performances are expected. The *Cable Chess Match* between Great Britain and the United States was won by the former, and the trophy, presented some fifteen years ago by Sir George Newnes, has, by three successive victories, been secured permanently by the British players. It is to be regretted that the British Chess Federation has been

compelled, for lack of support, to abandon the proposal for an *International Tournament* in 1912. Steps should immediately be taken to make such an event a certainty in 1913.

Draughts.

The principal event for 1911 organised by the English Draughts Association consisted of a *North and South match* by teams of 50 players aside, at Leicester, on Easter Monday, the North team winning by 26 to 22, with 43 games drawn. The *first telegraphic match* in the history of the game was contested by teams of 20 players, representing London and Manchester, the private wire and offices of the "Daily News" being used for the occasion, London winning by 5 to 3, with 12 draws. The Yorkshire champion, W. GARDINER, was presented with a gold medal for three wins. The *London Championship* was won by F. KAISER, the *Middlesex* by P. CRABBE, and the *Surrey* by H. T. SMITH. At the general meeting of the E.D.A., it was decided to hold the *Championship Meeting* in London, play starting on Easter Monday, 1912, the semi-final and final of the Minor Championship being played at the same time and place. By the death of W. K. CAMPBELL, England and London has lost one of its finest players.

The *18th Scottish Championship* was commenced on Monday, January 2nd, 1911, at Glasgow, JAMES FERRIE being declared the winner. This makes the fifth time FERRIE has secured the title. A. B. SCOTT was runner-up, with R. T. WARD and G. O'CONNOR tying for third and fourth places. The *Lancashire v. Glasgow match* of 22 players aside, resulted in a win for Glasgow by 10 to 7, with 17 draws. G. O'CONNOR secured the *Glasgow Championship*, with T. McEwan runner-up; while T. GRAHAM, of Blantyre, gained the Lanarkshire title. Another of Scotland's great five has passed away in RICHARD JORDAN, of Edinburgh, the World's Champion.

In America the principal event has been the tour of ALFRED JORDAN, the English Champion, who has had splendid results in his simultaneous exhibitions. The only individual matches played by him has been one of 20 games with DROUILLARD, at San Francisco, resulting in 7 wins to nil and 11 games drawn in favour of JORDAN, and the second, also of 20 games, with NEWELL BANKS, the American Champion, at Cedar Point, JORDAN winning with a score of 4 to 1, with 13 draws. H. HENDERSON beat J. D'ORIO in a match of 50 games. The *Boston Annual Tournament* between the New England Checker Association and Boston resulted in a win for Boston by 140 to 129, with 95 draws. A *Checker Association* for America has been formed with FRANK A. FITZPATRICK, president; Messrs. LANNIN, PATTERSON, VALENTINE, HOGUE, and FISHBURNE, vice-presidents, and M. D. TRETZEL as secretary.

The *Australasian Championship* was played at Dunedin, New Zealand, and won by W. PENMAN, of New Zealand; it also carried with it the N.Z. title; F. E. HILLIKER was second, and D. A. BRODIE third. The *Town and County match* was also played at Dunedin, 162 players competing, and resulted in the Town winning by 152 to 85, with 47 draws.

DRAMA OF THE YEAR.

By E. A. BAUGHAN.

In considering the state of the stage of to-day, it is easy enough to be vaguely pessimistic. Yet no playgoer of experience can deny that the stage is steadily improving, in spite of the fact that theatre management is entirely a matter of commerce. Not only is the improvement to be seen in musical comedy and the general run of farce, but the serious play is a more artistic and truthful presentation of life than it was 20 years, or even 10 years, ago. We all are hoping that the **Shakespeare National Memorial Theatre** will come into being. Whatever its imperfections might be, it would at least provide one theatre which would be lifted above the cramping necessity of earning a big dividend. In the provinces the **repertory theatre** is gaining ground every day, thanks to the success which Miss Horniman has achieved in Manchester. Glasgow has its repertory theatre, and after a preliminary season a repertory theatre has been established in Liverpool.

So far from there being any just cause for pessimism, we may congratulate ourselves that, conditions being what they are, drama in London is in such a healthy state. The taste of the public has steadily improved, and it is an open question if theatre managers do not underrate it. For instance, during this year several productions have succeeded which no ordinary commercial manager would have produced. First among these was Mr. Moffat's "Buntty pulls the Strings." Its production in London was due to Mr. Cyril Maude, who mounted it for a short series of matinees at the Playhouse. Every critic worth his salt recognised the freshness and originality of this little play, and it was immediately put into the evening bill at the Haymarket, when it proved one of the successes of the year. Then Mr. Edward Knoblauch's "Kismet" is not the kind of drama an ordinary London manager could produce. The success of "Sumurun" paved the way for this fascinating series of pictures of Eastern life, or at anyrate, induced the enterprising Oscar Asche to produce it. "Kismet" has also been one of the successes of the year. Then Miss Lillah McCarthy has been triumphant in her productions. The matinees of "The Witch" at the Court Theatre were well attended, and Mr. Bernard Shaw's "Fanny's First Play" had quite a long run at the Little Theatre. Mr. Shaw himself would be in danger of becoming a popular playwright if his admirers would allow his plays to speak for themselves, and not hold them up as deep treatises on the philosophy of life. Mr. Robert Lorraine's production of "Man and Superman" at the Criterion, played throughout in a breezy, farcical spirit, has been one of the comedy successes of the year.

To turn from these exceptional plays, we may note an improvement in the **ordinary plays of commerce**. Mr. Had-don Chambers's "Passers-by" was not a great popular success, but it is a play which embodied genuine sympathy with life, and was therefore welcome. Mr. Alfred Sutro's "The Perplexed Husband" does attempt to deal with some of the fads of the day and their effect on life when applied to it as a practical mode of conduct. The play does not cut very deep, but it is by far the best thing Mr. Sutro has done. Mr. Cyril Maude has tried at something in his production of "Rip van Winkle." There are moments of real poetry in Mr. Strong's version of the old legend. Then, again, Sir Arthur Pinero's "Preserving Mr. Panmure," unpleasant as the principal character was, was above the level of plays of a decade ago. This improvement was to be noted in "The Lilly," Mr. Mason's "The Witness for the Defence," Mr. Somerset Maugham's "Loaves and Fishes," Mr. Jerome's "The Master of Mrs. Chilvers," Mr. Hemmerde's "A Butterfly on the Wheel," and Mr. Arnold Bennett's "The Honeymoon," although all these plays are dramas of commerce.

In **musical comedy** the improvement is towards better music and less of the low comedian. "The Waltz Dream," revived during the year, "The Count of Luxembourg," and "The Mousmé" are superior to the musical comedy of the past. On the other hand, "Baron Trenck," "The Love Mills," and "The Spring Maid," although not quite according to the old pattern, were comparative failures. There have been some failures, too, in "legitimate drama." "Pomander Walk," which so charmed America, was a failure here, simply because we are not in love with the pseudo-antique. Mr. McEvoy's "All that Matters" was a ramshackle affair of pretentious unconventionality, and Mr. H. A. Jones's "The Ogre" was too naively farcical to be successful.

As to **Shakespeare**, Sir Herbert Tree gave his customary festival, and afterwards produced "Macbeth" with the magnificence we associate with His Majesty's Theatre. There was a revival of "Romeo and Juliet," with Miss Neilson Terry as the heroine. This is a day of young actresses, who are praised for their budding talent as if they were mature and experienced actresses. Miss Terry's performance was clever and promising, but that is all. The same may be said of Miss Marie Löhr in the English version of Pierre Wolff's "Les Marionnettes." Sir John Hare's acting in this play, together with the production of "Buntty pulls the Strings," "Sumurun," "Kismet," and the delightful "Le Mariage de Mlle. Beulemans," remain in my mind as the outstanding features of the dramatic year.

IRISH AND SCOTTISH COUNTIES.

| Irish Counties. | Population, 1911. | Inc. or Dec. | Scottish Counties. | Population, 1911. | Inc. or Dec. |
|--------------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Carlow | 36,151 | - 1,597 | Aberdeen | 311,350 | + 6,911 |
| Dublin | 418,206 | + 28,703 | Argyll | 70,901 | + 2,741 |
| Kildare | 63,566 | + 2,932 | Ayr | 268,332 | + 13,864 |
| Kilkenny | 74,821 | - 4,338 | Banff | 61,402 | - 86 |
| King's | 56,769 | - 3,418 | Berwick | 29,643 | - 1,181 |
| Longford | 43,794 | - 2,278 | Bute | 18,186 | - 601 |
| Louth | 63,402 | - 2,418 | Caithness | 32,008 | - 1,862 |
| Meath | 61,920 | - 2,577 | Clackmannan | 31,121 | - 908 |
| Queen's | 54,262 | - 3,055 | Dumbartonshire | 139,831 | + 25,966 |
| Westmeath | 59,812 | - 1,817 | Dumfries | 72,824 | + 253 |
| Wexford | 102,287 | - 1,817 | Edinburgh | 507,662 | + 18,866 |
| Wicklow | 60,603 | - 221 | Elgin | 43,427 | - 1,873 |
| Clare | 104,064 | - 8,270 | Fife | 267,734 | + 48,894 |
| Cork, E.R. | 267,472 | - 5,217 | Forfar | 281,419 | - 2,663 |
| Cork, W.R. | 123,718 | - 8,204 | Haddington | 43,253 | + 4,583 |
| Kerry | 159,268 | - 6,458 | Inverness | 87,270 | - 2,834 |
| Limerick | 142,840 | - 3,232 | Kincardine | 41,007 | + 84 |
| Tipperary, N.R. .. | 63,958 | - 3,857 | Kinross | 7,528 | - 547 |
| Tipperary S.R. ... | 87,993 | - 4,424 | Kirkcubright | 38,363 | - 1,020 |
| Waterford | 83,766 | - 3,421 | Lanark | 1,447,113 | + 107,786 |
| Antrim | 478,603 | + 16,969 | Linlithgow | 79,456 | + 13,748 |
| Armagh | 119,625 | - 5,767 | Nairn | 9,319 | + 28 |
| Cavan | 91,071 | - 6,470 | Orkney | 25,896 | - 2,803 |
| Donegal | 168,420 | - 5,302 | Peebles | 15,258 | + 192 |
| Down | 304,589 | + 15,064 | Perth | 124,339 | - 1,056 |
| Fermanagh | 61,811 | - 3,619 | Renfrew | 314,574 | + 45,594 |
| Londonderry | 140,621 | - 3,783 | Ross and Cromarty .. | 77,353 | + 903 |
| Monaghan | 71,395 | - 8,216 | Roxburgh | 47,192 | - 1,612 |
| Tyrone | 142,437 | - 8,130 | Selkirk | 24,600 | + 1,244 |
| Galway | 181,686 | - 10,863 | Shetland | 27,911 | - 255 |
| Leitrim | 63,557 | - 5,786 | Sirling | 161,003 | + 18,712 |
| Mayo | 191,969 | - 7,197 | Sutherland | 20,180 | - 1,260 |
| Roscommon | 93,904 | - 7,887 | Wigtown | 31,990 | - 695 |
| Sligo | 78,850 | - 5,233 | | | |

BURGESS'S CHANNEL SWIM.

The year 1911 will be memorable in the annals of swimming as the one in which William Thomas Burgess, a native of Yorkshire, but now a naturalised citizen of France, swam from the English coast to the French coast across the English Channel, thus realising his ambition to accomplish a feat previously credited only to Captain Webb 36 years ago.

It was at 9-50 a.m. on the morning of September 11th that Burgess swam into the shallows of the bay on the French coast east of Grisez, and stood upright; 22 hours and 35 minutes after he had taken to the water on the English coast, under the cliffs midway between the South Foreland and St. Margaret's Bay, at 11-15 a.m. on the previous morning.

Captain Webb's time is officially recorded as being 21 hours 45 minutes.

The story of Burgess's triumph has best told by himself:—

"I made up my mind that I was going through with it to the end. But I had a most extraordinary experience with the tides, and it took all my determination to keep going when I got a set-back of some miles after getting into mid-Channel. My

course was a most erratic one and worked out like a badly-written capital 'M,' with a loop on the first down-stroke. Upon starting I was carried away by the tide to three miles north-east of the South Goodwin lightship. Then there was a very long run of the ebb-tide, and it was hard work to make progress across it. I was set back towards England, swim as hard as I might.

"When the flood-tide finished I was about ten miles off Calais. The next tide was kinder and we made a good course towards Cape Grisez, doing very well till seven o'clock in the morning, when we were about a mile off the shore. Then for the next three hours it was a desperate fight. To add to my troubles I was stung time after time by poisonous jelly-fish. It was a tremendous task to finish the swim, but I was encouraged by the party on my accompanying boats and by the sight of the people on the shore awaiting my landing. The tide shot me across Grisez at a distance of 400 yards from the shore. I made a race to get in on the west of the point, but was caught by an off-setting current, and carried round to the point again, only a hundred or so yards away."

Finally, Burgess sprinted for a pit of sand just under the little village near Grisez Point and succeeded in landing.

THE DEATHS OF 1911.

The Houses of Parliament.

The death of SIR CHARLES DILKE (January 27th), in his 68th year, was a serious loss to the new *House of Commons*. It was a quarter of a century since he had held office, but his unrivalled and detailed knowledge of many departments of public business made him a power in the House. He was the greatest surviving champion of economy in administration. Mr. S. H. BUTCHER, the Senior member for Cambridge University, and a vehement opponent of Home Rule for Ireland, was best known to the public as one of the greatest of contemporary classical scholars. Scottish Liberalism lost two able representatives in Dr. A. ROLLAND RAINY (Kilmarnock Burghs) and Mr. GALLOWAY WEIR (Ross and Cromarty). Dr. Rainy died in harness, for he was engaged on an article on Scottish Home Rule for this book on the day before his death. The death of Sir JOHN BRIGG (October 1st) created a vacancy at Kelghley. Liberalism in Newcastle, and indeed throughout the North of England, suffered a great loss by the death of Dr. SPENCE WATSON (March 2nd). Sir JOHN AIRD (January 6th), the constructor of the Nile barrage at Assuan and Assiut, sat in the House of Commons for nearly 20 years prior to 1905.

Other ex-members of the House of Commons who died during the year were Mr. E. H. PICKERSGILL (October 13th), actively concerned in many schemes connected with the reform of London government; Mr. J. W. MELLOR (October 13th), for long Chairman of Committees in the House; Sir WILLIAM CROSSLEY (October 12th), head of the engineering firm of Crossley Bros., Manchester, and one of the directors of the Manchester Ship Canal; Mr. W. C. STEADMAN (July 21st, until recently secretary of the Parliamentary Committee of the Trade Union Congress; Mr. HENRY BROADHURST (October 11th), ex-parliamentary secretary of the Trade Union Congress and one of the early Labour members, who had been, however, for some time reckoned with official Liberalism.

As Lord President of the Council, HENRY HARTLEY FOWLER, Viscount Wolverhampton (February 26th), had latterly taken no prominent part in public affairs. His reputation was made under the Gladstone and

Rosebery administrations, as one of the chief spokesmen in the House for Nonconformist interests. Lord Rosebery made him Secretary of State for India, an appointment which caused some surprise at the time, but was fully justified by Sir Henry's sympathetic handling of Indian affairs. LORD JAMES OF HEREFORD (August 18th) was still, at 82 years of age, reckoned one of the greatest of industrial lawyers. In the Osborne case, although he gave judgment against the A.S.R.S., he stated that in his opinion it might well be in the interest of trade unionism and labour that trade union funds should be devoted to the support of a parliamentary representative. He was Attorney-General under Mr. Gladstone, but had parted from him on the Home Rule question. LORD COLLINS (January 5th), who was a Conservative in politics, but was made a Lord of Appeal by the present Government, was chairman of the commission which sat on the Beck case. The 9th EARL OF CARLISLE (April 16th) was himself a distinguished artist, and as Senior Trustee of the National Gallery he rendered great services to British art. One of his last public efforts was to oppose the proposed encroachment on St. James's Park for the King Edward Memorial. LORD LOCHEE (September 13th), better known as Mr. Edmund Robertson, was Parliamentary Secretary to the Admiralty in Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman's ministry. Sir J. KITSON, LORD AIRDALE (March 16th), the founder of the great engineering firm in Leeds, was, from the Education agitation of 1870 onwards, one of the principal leaders of Yorkshire Liberalism. EARL CAWDOR (February 8th) is remembered by the famous memorandum on Admiralty Policy which he issued as First Lord just before the fall of Mr. Balfour's ministry. In 1910 he was one of the Council of Eight who sat in conference on the Constitutional question. The Jewish community lost one of its leaders in LORD SWAYTHLING (January 12th), head of the great firm of exchange merchants, Samuel Montagu & Co.

The EARL OF ONSLOW (October 23rd) was President of the Board of Agriculture in the last Conservative Government, and until last year acted as Lord Chairman of the House of Lords.

Law and Administration.

JUDGE BACON (June 10th), well known in the East End, was appointed to the County Court Bench so long ago as 1878. JUDGE EMDEN (February 19th), who came much into contact with the poor debtor at the Lambeth County Court, was a strong opponent of imprisonment for debt. Mr. E. H. PEMBER, K.C. (January 5th), was connected with many famous cases at the Parliamentary Bar, and was a writer of scholarly verse.

Sir ELDON GORST (June 26th) had a long connection with the British administration in Egypt prior to his appointment to the extraordinarily difficult post of successor to Lord Cromer in Egypt. During the four

years of his rule in Egypt he was the object of constant attacks in the Conservative Press. Other distinguished civil servants who died during the year were Sir C. A. ELLIOT (May 28th), former Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal; Sir EDWARD BRADFORD (May 13th), Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police up till 1903; Sir ALFRED LYALL (April 10th), oriental scholar and historian.

Sir FRANCIS GALTON was in his 69th year when he died, last January, and the importance of his contribution to anthropological science was beginning to be recognised. He left the bulk of his fortune for the endowment of the study of eugenics.

The Churches.

There were two vacancies by death on the Episcopal Bench. Dr. PAGET, Bishop of Ox-

ford (August 2nd). In spite of some differences on ritual questions following on the

Royal Commission on Ecclesiastical Discipline, of which he was a member, Dr. Paget retained the confidence of most sections of the High Church party. Dr. JOHN WORDSWORTH, Bishop of Salisbury (August 6th), was the son of Dr. Christopher Wordsworth, of Lincoln, and one of the most learned of the bishops. Dr. ALEXANDER (September 12th), Primate of Ireland, was a less learned man, but an eloquent preacher and a religious poet with a considerable public. DEAN GREGORY (August 8th) had resigned the Deanery of St. Paul's shortly before his death in his ninety-third year. On the financial and administrative side he was responsible for the re-organisation of St. Paul's Cathedral associated with the names of Dean Church and Canon Liddon. Other famous churchmen who died during the year were CANON DUCKWORTH (September 20th), CANON BODY (June 5th).

The Free Churches lost two veteran leaders in Dr. GUINNESS ROGERS (August 20th), Dr. Dale's colleague in the campaign against denominational education in 1870. He had been for 35 years the pastor of the Grafton

Square Church, Clapham. Dr. PATON (January 26th) was a worker in many social fields, not the least of his services being the foundation of the National Home Reading Union. The Rev. C. H. KELLY (April 6th) was an ex-president of the Wesleyan Conference, and for nearly 20 years Book Steward of the Connexion. Sir PERCY BUNTING (July 22nd) was a distinguished Wesleyan layman and an active social worker. Through the "Contemporary Review," which he edited for close on 30 years, he exercised a wide influence on affairs. Dr. HERMANN ADLER (July 18th), who had succeeded his father as Chief Rabbi of the United Congregations of the British Empire in 1889, was a well-known figure in London civic life, and exercised very great influence in his own community. The Rev. J. PAGE HOPPS (April 7th), the well-known Unitarian minister, was for many years pastor of the Great Meeting at Leicester, and a great leader of Leicester Liberalism. PATRICK MORAN, CARDINAL ARCHBISHOP OF SYDNEY (August 16th), scholar and historian, was the first Australian cardinal.

Literature and Art.

"HESBA STRETTON" (Miss Sarah Smith), who died in October, did not figure in literary histories of the Victorian era, but "Jessica's First Prayer" found a million and a half of purchasers, and, with other of her books, was a cherished possession of the children of an earlier generation. ANTONIO FOGAZZARO (March 7th) was widely known in this country as the author of "The Saint." WILLIAM SCHWENCK GILBERT (May 29th), a veteran of English letters, had lived to see the very successful revival in 1907, at the Savoy, of the comic operas which had made his name and Sir Arthur Sullivan's household words in the 'eighties.

Mr. C. F. MOBERLY BELL (April 5th), manager of "The Times," who was actively concerned in the changes which took place at the time of the formation of The Times Publishing Company, had been in the service of the paper ever since he was 18. Another well-known figure in London journalism was Mr. JOSEPH BENNETT (June 12th), for over 30 years musical critic of "The Telegraph." The veteran newspaper proprietor, Mr. PASSMORE EDWARDS (April 22nd) rivalled Mr. Carnegie in his gifts of libraries and books. He also founded the Settlement in Tavistock Place as a centre of social and religious life. Another generous giver to philanthropic and educational objects was Mr. H. O. WILLS, of Bristol (September 18th).

Among artists, the Royal Academy lost three members during 1911: JOHN MACWHIRTER, R.A. (January 28th), the popular landscapeist; ERNEST CROFTS, R.A. (March 19th), depictr of war scenes, who as Keeper was widely respected; and EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY, R.A. (August 1st), the gifted American-born illustrator, painter of Shakespearean themes, and decorator, the last of whose mural decorations for the State Capitol of Pennsylvania had to be completed by pupils. Outside the Academy, which necessarily does not adequately represent present-day art,

the death roll at home included FREDERICK J. SHIELDS (February 26th), devoted decorator of the Chapel of the Ascension; EDWARD WHYMPER (September 16th), trained as a wood engraver, afterwards mountaineer and conqueror of the Matterhorn, explorer, and artist; JAMES FAED (September 24th), who skilfully engraved in steel many of the familiar pictures of his brother, Thomas Faed, R.A.; JAMES AUMONIER, R.O.I. (October 4th), a reticent landscapist of the older school; and Sir CHARLES LAWES-WITTEWONGE (October 6th), athlete and sculptor, defendant in the famous art suit, *Belt v. Lawes*. Sir CASPAR PURDON CLARKE, Sir RICHARD RIVINGTON HOLMES, ARTHUR SKINNER, THOMAS ARMSTRONG, WILLIAM ISAAC LAST, and WARWICK WILLIAM WROTH had done good service at the Victoria and Albert and other Museums. Of collectors, &c., there may be named Sir JOHN AIRD, the EARL OF CARLISLE, MAX ROSENHEIM, LORD SWAYTHLING, CHARLES WERTHEIMER, and the Hon. PERCY WYNDHAM. Deaths among foreign artists of note include FRITZ VON UHDE (February 26th), painter of New Testament subjects modernised; Professor REINHOLD BEGAS (August 3rd), sculptor of many public monuments in Berlin; JULES LEFEBVRE (June 15th), French historical painter; and JOSEF ISRAELS (August 12th), almost the last of the modern Dutch masters, who was elected to Hon. Membership of the Royal Academy in 1906.

Two great losses in the musical world were reported in 1911, in the deaths of Herr FELIX MOTTL (July 2nd), the famous conductor, director of the Munich Opera House; and Herr GUSTAV MAHLER (May 17th), director of the Vienna Imperial Opera for 10 years, composer, and orthodox interpreter of Wagner. The death of LADY HALL recalls the services rendered by Sir Charles and herself to English music a quarter of a century ago.

Foreign Countries.

Abroad the notable deaths of the year included M. STOLYPIN, assassinated at Kiev on September 15th; M. ROUVIER (June 7th),

Prime Minister of France at the time of the last Algeciras Conference; GENERAL CRONJE (February 4th), the rugged soldier who had

eventually to surrender to Lord Roberts at Paardeberg; ARABI PASHA (September 21st), for 20 years an exile in Ceylon; and the DOWAGER QUEEN MARIA PIA OF PORTUGAL. Sir ROBERT HART (September 3rd), one of the

great administrators of his time, was an Irishman, but practically his whole life was devoted to the service of the Chinese Empire, as Inspector-General of the Customs.

EXPERIMENTS ON

The number of persons in Great Britain licensed to perform experiments on living animals was, in 1910, 542, 147 of whom carried out no experiments. The total number of experiments was 95,731, showing an increase of 9,454 over the previous year. Of these 4,939 involved a more or less serious operation performed under anæsthetics. The remaining 90,792 were inoculations, hypodermic injections, feeding experiments; and are certified to be such as are attended by no serious pain. In the event of pain ensuing on inoculation, the regulations demand that the animal shall be killed under anæsthetics as soon as the main result of the experiment has been attained.

Investigations into the cause of cancer are responsible for 49,662 experiments, of which 816 fell in the category requiring the administration of anæsthetics. The greater

LIVING ANIMALS.

number were on mice, 8,000 experiments were made in connection with the preparation and anti-toxic sera and vaccines, and for the testing and standardising of drugs.

The 4,939 operations under anæsthetics were distributed as follows:—

(1) 2,942 carried out under the provision of the Act which requires that a sufficient anæsthetic should be administered to prevent any sensation of pain, and if the pain is likely to continue after the effect of the anæsthetic has ceased, or if serious injury is inflicted, the animal must be killed before it recovers from the influence of the anæsthetic; (2) 224 experiments under the conditions above in illustration of lectures; (3) 1,997 under a certificate which exempts from the obligation to kill the animal before recovery from the anæsthetic; of these, 282 required the special certificate insisted on when the animal is a cat or a dog.

STANDARD BREAD.

The Report to the Local Government Board on the nutritive value of bread made from different varieties of wheat flour is of great interest at a time when different kinds of bread are being pushed as being superior in nutriment to all others. Dr. Hamill points out first of all that the difference in nutriment between the different kinds of flour is not of much importance to the average adult in whose dietary bread is only one out of many varied constituents. It is erroneous to suppose that ordinary high grade and naturally white "patent" flour is almost devoid of protein and nitrogenous constituents, and that these necessarily exist in a much greater degree in bread made from wholemeal and "entire" wheat flours. In fact, the nutritive value of the bread depends more upon the quality of the wheat from which the flour was made than on the different methods of preparation. At the same time it is admitted that different kinds of bread, made from "patent," "entire," wheat, wholemeal, or "germ" flour, may for different reasons, mostly connected with digestion, be better suited to different individuals.

For the adult whose food consists principally of bread it is premised that no diet which only includes other foods in small proportions can be considered satisfactory, and that the essential reform is to secure a greater variety of diet, not necessarily at greater cost. With this caution, which applies with equal force to the diet of growing children, it may be said that bread made from "households" and other flours probably has the advantage in nutriment over white bread made from the higher grade flours. "Entire" wheat flours (including stone-ground flours and "standard" flour) contain additional constituents, due to the presence of

branny particles and the germ of the wheat, which may contain minerals of value to the individual. The recent agitation in favour of other kinds of bread than white bread has served to convince the public that good wholesome bread may contain a proportion of millers' "offal" and yet be palatable, and that whiteness is not necessarily a standard of quality. In the revolt against the white loaf made from the smallest possible quantity of flour, "standard" or "80 per cent." flour has made a great bid for popular support.

"Standard" flour can be prepared either by stone- or roller-milling processes. After the stone-milling, the wholemeal is put through a sieve, by which coarse, branny matter amounting to 20 per cent. of the wheat is removed. In roller mills the ordinary processes of milling for a 70 per cent. white flour are usually followed, and a portion of the finely divided offal, including the germ, is then returned to the flour. The difficulty is that it is possible to make an imitation standard flour from lower grade flour which will deceive those who are not experts.

A real standardisation of flour would necessitate a standardisation of wheat, which, in view of the many sources from which our wheat supply is drawn, is practically impossible. Dr. Hamill, however, points out that something might be done in the direction of establishing a maximum limit for the water-content in flour. In the United States and in Canada this content is fixed at 13.5 per cent. A flour-factor informed Dr. Hamill that the flour which he purchased sometimes contained as much as 18 per cent. of water, and that a sack of flour (280lbs.) might, on being kept for a month or so, lose as much as 10lbs. in weight.

THE TWENTY-FIVE LARGEST TRADE UNIONS.

| Name. | Address of Secretary. | Funds, 1909. | Income, 1909. | No. of Mems. |
|---|---|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| BUILDING TRADES. | | £ | £ | |
| Operative Bricklayers' Society. | 58, Southwark Bridge Road, S.E. | 78,940 | 46,800 | 25,008 |
| Operative Stonemasons' Society. | 28, John St., Bedford Row, W.C. | 7,054 | 12,280 | 7,849 |
| Amal. Soc. of Carpenters & Joiners. | 95, Brunswick St., Manchester. | 87,398 | 237,694 | 56,460 |
| MINING. | | | | |
| Northumberland Miners' Assn. | Burt Hall, Newcastle-on-Tyne. | 153,684 | 26,611 | 35,598 |
| Durham Miners' Association. | 16, North Road, Durham. | 463,154 | 167,392 | 117,320 |
| Yorkshire Miners' Association. | 2, Huddersfield Road, Barnsley. | 314,436 | 105,608 | 83,826 |
| Lancs. & Cheshire Miners' Fed. | 925, Ashton Old Rd., Manchester. | 91,407 | 59,807 | 62,810 |
| Derbyshire Miners' Association. | 47, Clarence Rd., Chesterfield. | 294,554 | 52,071 | 37,944 |
| Nottinghamshire Miners' Association | Old Basford, Notts. | 214,700 | 40,146 | 33,132 |
| South Wales Miners' Federation. | Royal Chambers, Cardiff. | 226,077 | 78,051 | 141,089 |
| METAL, ENGINEERING, AND SHIPBUILDING TRADES. | | | | |
| Friendly Society of Ironfounders. | 164, Chorlton Road, Manchester. | 31,748 | 86,173 | 18,309 |
| Amalgamated Society of Engineers. | 110, Peckham Road, S.E. | 573,299 | 399,406 | 107,140 |
| Boilermakers & Iron & Steel Ship-builders. | Lifton House, Newcastle-on-Tyne. | 123,042 | 153,204 | 49,350 |
| Ship Constructive and Shipwrights'. | 8, Eldon Sq., Newcastle-on-Tyne. | 88,563 | 47,152 | 20,647 |
| TEXTILE TRADES. | | | | |
| Oldham Card, &c., Operatives' Assn. | 108, Union Street, Oldham. | 76,457 | 22,822 | 18,015 |
| Am. Assn. of Op. Cotton Spinners, &c. | 3, Blossom St., Gt. Ancoats St., M'ter. | 419,167 | 112,835 | 53,949 |
| Blackburn Weavers', &c., Assn. | 1, Clayton Street, Blackburn. | 27,999 | 19,585 | 15,151 |
| CLOTHING TRADES. | | | | |
| Boot & Shoe Operatives. | Trade Hall, St. James' St., Leicester. | 122,419 | 39,915 | 30,348 |
| Amalgamated Society of Tailors. | 415, Oxford Road, Manchester. | 7,602 | 17,702 | 12,052 |
| TRANSPORT (LAND AND WATER). | | | | |
| Amal. Soc. of Railway Servants. | A.S.R.S., 72, Acton Street, W.C. | 429,273 | 93,765 | 73,571 |
| Dock, Wharf, &c., Workers' Union. | 425, Mile End Road, E. | 11,626 | 9,791 | 15,740 |
| PRINTING TRADES. | | | | |
| London Society of Compositors. | 7 & 9, St. Bride Street, E.C. | 62,159 | 45,890 | 12,090 |
| Typographical Association. | Caxton Hall, Salford. | 62,753 | 37,614 | 20,783 |
| LABOURERS. | | | | |
| Gas Workers and Gen. Labourers. | 172, Pentonville Road, N. | 3,806 | 19,183 | 31,735 |
| Nat. Amal. Union of Labour. | 4, Higham Pl., Newcastle-on-Tyne. | 3,328 | 12,152 | 16,657 |

GENERAL FEDERATIONS AND TRADE UNIONS.

| | |
|--|--|
| General Federation of Trade Unions..... | W. A. Appleton, 8, Adelphi Ter., Adam St., W.C. |
| Union of Building Trades Federations of the U.K. | E. Donohoe, 37, Ramsey St., Moston, Manchester. |
| Miners' Federation of Great Britain..... | T. Ashton, J.P., 925, Ashton Old Rd., Man'ter. |
| Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades of the U.K. | W. Mosses, Rutland Road, Eccles, Manchester. |
| N.E. Coast Fed. Societies of the Transport and Shipping Trade. | P. Millen, 296, Simonside Ter., Heaton, Newcastle-on-Tyne. |
| Nat. Transport Workers' Federation..... | B. Tillett, 425, Mile End Road, E. |
| General Labourers' National Council..... | J. N. Bell, 4, Higham Pl., Newcastle-on-Tyne. |

FOURTEEN IMPORTANT FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

| Society. | Address of Secretary. | Funds, 1909. | Income, 1909. | No. of Mems. (Adult Males). |
|----------------------------------|---|-----------------|------------------|--------------------------------------|
| AFFILIATED ORDERS. | | £ | £ | |
| M.U. Oddfellows. | 97, Grosvenor St., Chorlton-on-Medlock, Manchester. | 12,325,379 | 1,621,627 | 749,363 |
| A.O. Foresters. | 31, Union St., Burton-on-Trent | 8,049,271 | 1,236,274 | 608,728 |
| I.O. Rechabites (Salford Unity). | 26, Bury New Rd., Manchester. | 1,386,394 | 367,496 | 206,112 |
| L.O.A. Shepherds (Ashton Unity) | 274, Oxford Rd., Manchester. | 1,096,272 | 217,883 | 121,803 |
| Nat. Independent Oddfellows. | 119, Stockport Rd., M'chester. | 398,121 | 89,589 | 59,300 |
| N.U.O. Free Gardeners. | The Steps, Sandbach, Cheshire. | 240,044 | 86,026 | 53,467 |
| U.A.O. Druids. | 19, St. Hilda Street, Hull. | 319,651 | 73,611 | 51,879 |
| The Order of Druids. | 330, Oxford Rd., Manchester. | 199,659 | 108,291 | 66,162 |
| B.O.A. Free Gardeners. | 27, Oswald St., Glasgow. | 324,688 | 81,790 | 45,472 |
| Nottingham A.I.U.O. Oddfellows. | 122, Mansfield Rd., Not'ham. | 238,311 | 56,033 | 36,648 |
| Sons of Temperance. | North Rd., Clayton, M'chester. | *414,947 | *135,248 | *94,694 |
| CENTRALISED SOCIETIES. | | | | |
| Hearts of Oak. | Hearts of Oak Buildings, Euston Road, N.W. | 3,781,165 | 722,340 | 301,154 |
| Rational Association. | Rational Buildings, Bridge Street, Manchester. | 565,600 | 152,505 | 98,635 |
| National Deposit F.S. | 37, Queen Square, W.C. | †1,125,097 | †307,355 | †201,849 |

*Including Female members. †Including female and juvenile members.

PARTY ORGANISATIONS.

1.—LIBERAL.

LIBERAL CENTRAL ASSOCIATION.

21, Abingdon Street, S.W. *Telegrams:* "Animation," London. *Tel.*: 2110 Victoria.

Pres.: The Rt. Hon. H. H. Asquith, M.P.
Chm.: The Rt. Hon. The Master of Elibank, M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: Sir Robert Hudson.
Hon. Treas.: Sir Jesse Herbert. *Legal Adviser*: Sir Henry Paget Cooke. *Registration Sec.*: J. Renwick Seager.

NATIONAL LIBERAL FEDERATION

(Founded in 1877.) 42, Parliament Street, S.W. *Telegrams:* "Liberalise," London. *Tel.*: 2131 Victoria.

Pres.: Sir John Brunner. *Chm. of Com.*: Sir Edward Evans. *Treas.*: Frank Wright. *Sec.*: Sir Robert Hudson. *Assist. Sec.*: Frank Barter.

LIBERAL PUBLICATION DEPARTMENT.

42, Parliament Street, S.W. *Telegrams:* "Publicola," London. *Tel.*: 861 Victoria.

Chm.: The Rt. Hon. Russell Rea, M.P.
Treas.: Sir Robert Hudson. *Sec.*: Charles Geake. *Assist. Sec.*: John Henderson.

DEVON AND CORNWALL LIBERAL FEDERATION.

(Founded 1910), with which is incorporated the Devon Liberal Federation (founded 1886), Clarence Chambers, Tavistock Road, Plymouth. *Telegrams:* "Federate," Plymouth. *Tel. Nat.*: 580 Plymouth.

Pres.: Sir Thomas Dyke Acland, Bt., D.L., J.P. *Vice-pres.*: The Liberal Members of Parliament and Liberal Candidates for Devon and Cornwall. *Chm. of Exec. Com.*: Sir Francis Layland-Barratt, Bt., M.P.
Hon. Treas.: Hawkins Blake Varwell, J.P.
Hon. Secs.: Thomas H. Hepburn, J.P., and Henry Greenway. *Sec.*: Edwin C. Perry, J.P.

EASTERN COUNTIES LIB. FEDERATION.

Cumbergate, Peterborough. *Telegrams:* "Hughes, Cumbergate, Peterborough."

Pres.: The Hon. E. S. Montagu, M.P.
Org. Sec.: Chas. Hughes.

The Federation includes the counties Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, and North Northamptonshire, and all boroughs therein.

HOME COUNTIES LIB. FEDERATION.

42, Parliament Street, S.W. *Telegrams:* "Aggressive," London. *Tel.*: 642 Victoria.

Pres.: Earl Carrington, K.G., G.C.M.G.
Chm. of Exec. Com.: Lord Farrer. *Hon. Sec.*: Capt. the Hon. Clive Bigham, C.M.G.
Treas.: Capt. the Hon. H. S. Stanhope, R.N.
Sec.: W. M. Crook.

The Home Counties Liberal Federation is the head-quarters organisation for the Liberal Party in the following eleven counties: Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, Hampshire, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, Oxfordshire, Surrey, and Sussex.

LANCASHIRE, CHESHIRE AND NORTH WESTERN LIBERAL FEDERATION.

37, Cross Street, Manchester. *Telegrams:* "Ellansee, Manchester." *Tel.*: 3546 City, Manchester.

Pres.: The Rt. Hon. Sir John Brunner, Bt. *Chm. of Exec.*: Sir Benjamin Johnson.

Vice-Chm.: W. H. Somervell, J.P. *Treas.*: A. G. S. Harvey, M.P.; The Hon. Arthur L. Stanley; H. K. Campbell. *Hon. Sec.*: Sir Harold Elverston, M.P. *Sec.*: Fred Burn.

LONDON LIBERAL FEDERATION.

41, Parliament St., S.W. *Tel.*: 1489 Victoria.

Pres.: Rt. Hon. H. H. Asquith, M.P.
Chm.: W. H. Dickinson, M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: Sydney W. Pascall. *Assist. Sec.*: W. G. Rattey. *Political Organiser*: F. C. Rivers.

MIDLAND LIBERAL FEDERATION.

Newton Chambers, Cannon St., Birmingham. *Telegrams:* "Organise, Birmingham."

Tel.: 5854 Central.
Pres.: Col. the Rt. Hon. J. E. B. Seely, M.P. *Treas.*: Sir T. Barclay, J.P. *Sec.*: William Finnemore. *Assist. Sec.*: Alfred H. Cabellu.

The Federation operates over Derbyshire, Herefordshire, Leicestershire, Northamptonshire (except North Nants and Peterborough), Nottinghamshire, Rutland, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, and Worcestershire.

NORTHERN LIBERAL FEDERATION.

Pilgrim House, Newcastle-on-Tyne. *Telegrams:* "Federation, Newcastle-on-Tyne."

Nat. Tel.: 2563.

Pres.: Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Grey, Bt., M.P. *Chm.*: Sir Walter Runciman, Bt. *Sec.*: James Corrie.

The Federation includes all the constituencies in Northumberland and Durham, also Middlesbrough and Cleveland.

WESTERN COUNTIES LIBERAL FEDERATION.

11, Northgate St., Bath. *Telegrams:* "Federation, Bath." *Tel.*: Bath 741.

Chm.: Capt. the Hon. F. E. Guest, M.P.
Treas.: Sir E. Strachey, Bt., M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: Jas. Thornton, Esq., J.P. *Sec.*: W. J. Arnold.

The Federation embraces the boroughs and county divisions in Dorset, Gloucester, Somerset, and Wiltshire.

YORKSHIRE LIBERAL FEDERATION.

38, Boar Lane, Leeds. *Telegrams:* "Federation, Leeds." *Nat. Tel.*: 1740 Leeds, Central.

Chm.: C. N. Nicholson, M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: Arthur H. Marshall, M.P. *Sec.*: Harold Storey, B.A.

The Federation comprises all the boroughs and county divisions of Yorkshire, except Middlesbrough and Cleveland.

NATIONAL REFORM UNION.

Central Office, 50, Haworth's Buildings, Cross Street, Manchester. *Telegrams:* "Politics," Manchester.

London Office: 10, Adelphi Terrace, W.C. *Tel.*: 7360 Central.

Pres.: Lord Weardale. *Chm. of Exec. Com.*: J. Herbert Thewlis. *Hon. Sec.*: H. J. Ogden. *Treas.*: George Rhodes, K.C. *Sec.*: Arthur G. Symonds, M.A.

SCOTTISH LIBERAL ASSOCIATION.

Pres.: The Rt. Hon. H. H. Asquith, K.C., M.P. *Chm. of Gen. Coun.*: Sir George

een. *Hon. Treas.*: J. W. Gulland, M.P.
SERN SECTION—95, Princes Street, Edinburgh. *Telegrams*: "Organise," Edinburgh. *Tel.*: 2025.

Hon. Sec.: Robert Murray, J.P. *Sec.*: D. Wood, J.P.

ESTERN SECTION—7, West George Street, Glasgow. *Telegrams*: "Liberal," Glasgow. *Tel.*: 4445 National; 690 Corporation.
Hon. Sec.: R. Montgomerie, J.P. *Sec.*: William Webster, J.P.

Y CYNGHOR RHYDDERYDIG CENHEDLAETHOL CYMREIG (Welsh National Liberal Council.)

borne Chambers, Pontypool. *Telegrams*: Walter Hughes, Pontypool. *Tel.*: P.O. 7.
Pres.: The Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd George, M.P.
ice-pres.: W. Brace, M.P. *Treas.*: Chas. E. reese. *Chm.*: Lord St. Davids. *Sec.*: alter H. Hughes.

WOMEN'S LIBERAL FEDERATION.

2, Victoria St., S.W. *Telegrams*: "Propaganda," London. *Tel.*: 870 Victoria.
Pres.: Rosalind, Countess of Carlisle. *Hon. Sec.*: Mrs. Broadley Reid and Lady Bamford-lack. *Hon. Treas.*: Mrs. Eva McLaren.
Sec.: Mrs. McArthur. *Org. Sec.*: Miss L'Laren Ramsay. *Assist. Sec.*: Miss D. J. awrie.

WOMEN'S NATIONAL LIBERAL ASSOCIATION.

38, Palace Chambers, S.W. *Telegrams*: "Equality," London.
Pres.: Mrs. Asquith. *Chm.*: Lady Byles.
Sec.: Miss E. E. Page.

SCOTTISH WOMEN'S LIB. FEDERATION.

West George Street, Glasgow. *Telegrams*: "C/o Liberal," Glasgow. *Tel.*: 8857 City; 690 Central.
Pres.: The Lady Pentland. *Vice-Pres.*: Mrs. Falconer; Miss H. E. Waddell. *Hon. Secs.*: Miss M. Cunningham; Mrs. Swan.
Hon. Treas.: Mrs. Gilbert Beith. *Sec.*: Miss Alice Younger, M.A.

EIGHTY CLUB.

3, Hare Court, Temple, E.C. *Telegrams*: "Octuaginta," London. *Tel.*: 4745 Holborn.
Pres.: The Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd George, M.P.
Treas.: J. C. Swinburne-Hanham. *Sec.*: R. C. Hawkin.

NATIONAL LIBERAL CLUB.

(Established 1882.)
 Whitehall Place, S.W. *Telegrams*: "Enel-see," London. *Tel.*: 3700 Victoria (4 lines).
Pres. of the Club and Chm. of Gen. Com.: Rt. Hon. Earl Carrington, K.G., G.C.M.G.
Vice-Chm. of Gen. Com.: F. H. A. Hardcastle, F.S.I.; Sir Richard Stapley, J.P.

II. FREE TRADE & TARIFF

THE FREE TRADE UNION.

Head Office: 25, Victoria St., Westminster, S.W. *Telegrams*: "Reliable," London.
P.O. Tel.: 1094 Victoria.
 City Office: 3, Queen Victoria Street, E.C.
Nat. Tel.: 9006 London Wall.
Pres.: The Rt. Hon. Arnold Morley. *Treas.*: Rt. Hon. Earl Beauchamp, K.C.M.G., Sir Alfred Mond, Bt., M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: C. E. Mallet, Capt. Clive Bigham, C.M.G. *Assist. Sec.*: W. W. Champness.

COBDEN CLUB.

Broadway Court, Westminster, S.W. *Tel.*: 2917 Victoria.
Chm. of Com.: Lord Welby, G.C.B.

Chm. of Pol. Com.: George H. Radford, LL.B., J.P. *Vice-Chm.*: R. C. Lambert, J.P., L.C.C., M.P.; J. Renwick Seager, J.P.
Hon. Sec.: Albert E. Cave. *Club Sec.*: Donald Murray.

NEW REFORM CLUB.

10, Adelphi Terrace, Strand, W.C. *Tel.*: 7360 Central.

Chm.: Lord Weardale. *Vice-Chm.*: John A. Hobson. *Hon. Treas.*: Henry J. Wilson, M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: Arthur G. Symonds, M.A. *Sec.*: Miss Coe.

'95 CLUB.

49, Spring Gardens, Manchester. *Tel.*: 1647 City.

Pres.: Sir Arthur A. Howarth, Bt., M.P.
Hon. Treas.: Sydney Arnold. *Hon. Secs.*: W. Field Till; P. M. Oliver. *Sec.*: Frederick Willett.

LIBERAL SOCIAL COUNCIL.

92, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W. *Tel.*: 373 Victoria.

Pres.: The Viscountess Allendale. *Hon. Treas.*: Mrs. Harcourt. *Hon. Sec.*: Mrs. Sydney Buxton. *Sec.*: Miss M. M. Wills.
 To promote social gatherings for all Liberals.

NATIONAL RADICAL LEAGUE

(with which is incorporated the Democratic League).

57 and 58, Chancery Lane, London, W.C.
Pres.: Sir Henry Dalziel, M.P. *Hon. Treas.*: A. MacCallum Scott, M.P. *Hon. Sec.*: Aubrey L. Matson.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF YOUNG LIBERALS.

447, Strand, W.C.
Pres.: The Rt. Hon. Walter Runciman, M.P. *Chm. of the Nat. Exec.*: C. W. B. Prescott, B.A., *Vice-Chm.*: G. H. Parkin.
Hon. Treas.: Hon. Francis McLaren, M.P. *Sec.*: J. Aubrey Rees.

THE YOUNG SCOTS SOCIETY.

(Founded November, 1900.) *Hon. Pres.*: C. E. Price, Esq., M.P. *Pres.*: Wm. Laughland, Esq. *Hon. Gen. Sec.*: John M. Crosthwaite, 207, West George Street, Glasgow. *Hon. Gen. Treas.*: J. S. Saunders, 22, St John Street, Perth.

THE GLADSTONE LEAGUE.

Offices: 122, St. Stephen's House, S.W. *Tel.*: Victoria 3518.

Pres.: The Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd George, M.P.
Chm. of Exec. Com.: A. G. Gardiner. *Hon. Treas.*: G. P. Gooch, A. M. Brice. *Hon. Secs.*: Philip Morrell, M.P., E. Crawshaw Williams, M.P. *Gen. Sec.*: John Hughes.

REFORM ORGANISATIONS.

Treas.: The Rt. Hon. Russell Rea. *Hon. Sec.*: J. A. Murray Macdonald, M.P. *Sec.*: B. G. M. Baskett.

FINANCIAL REFORM ASSOCIATION.

18, Hackins Hey, Liverpool.
Pres.: E. K. Muspratt, J.P., LL.D. *Hon. Treas.*: Washington C. Rawlins, J.P. *Sec.*: J. W. S. Callie, F.S.S. *Assist. Sec.*: W. Lyon Blease, LL.M.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION.

34, Victoria Street, S.W. *Tel.*: 5163 Westminster.
Pres.: Rt. Hon. Earl of Cromer, G.C.B. *Sec.*: E. G. Brunner.

INTERNATIONAL FREE TRADE LEAGUE.

Pres.: Lord Welby, G.C.B. *Sec.*: B.G.M. Baskett, Cobden Club, Broadway Ct., S.W.

WOMEN'S FREE TRADE UNION.

185, Palace Chambers, S.W. *Telegrams*:

"Sensible, London." *Tel.*: 4008 Victoria.

Pres.: Mrs. Harcourt. *Chm.* of *Com.*:

Mrs. Thomas Lough. *Hon. Treas.*: Lady

Mond. *Hon. Sec.*: Lady Byles.

TARIFF REFORM LEAGUE.

7, Victoria Street, Westminster. *Telegrams*:

"Tariffed," London. *Tel.*: 616 Westminster

Pres.: The Duke of Sutherland, K.G.

Chm.: Viscount Ridley. *Sec.*: T. W. A.

Bagley, 7, Victoria Street, S.W.

THE WOMEN'S AMALGAMATED UNIONIST AND TARIFF REFORM ASSOCIATION.

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5720.

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109 Westminster.

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Chm.: Rt. Hon. Sir Savile Crossley, Bt.,

K.C.V.O. *Treas.*: Earl Fitzwilliam. *Hon.*

Sec.: H. Pike Pease, M.P. *Sec.*: John

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Sec.: Thomas Cox. *Lib. and Assist. Sec.*:

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"Conservative," Edinburgh. *Tel.*: 5589.

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M.P. *Chancellor*: Lord Northcote. *Treas.*:

Sir Joseph Dimsdale, Bt., K.C.V.O. *Pres.*

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Sec.: Frank Solbe

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W. Brace. *Whips*: G. H. Roberts, C. Dun-

can. *Sec.*: James Parker.

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Cross, J.P. (Northern Counties Weavers);

Ben Tillet (Dock, Wharf, and Riverside

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IRISH STATISTICS.

| | 1851 | 1891 | 1901 | 1907 | 1908 | 1909 | 1910 |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | (Census) | (Census) | (Census) | (Estimate) | (Estimate) | (Estimate) | (Estimate) |
| Population .. | 6,552,386 | 4,458,775 | 4,704,750 | 4,377,068 | 4,371,570 | 4,371,455 | 4,368,599 |
| Revenue coll'd | 4,338,091† | 9,005,932‡ | 11,818,000 | 11,399,000 | 11,478,000 | 11,285,500 | *9,846,000 |
| Est. "true" rev | 4,861,465† | 7,734,678‡ | 9,505,000 | 9,490,000 | 9,621,000 | 9,250,500 | *8,355,000 |
| Expenditure | 2,247,687† | 5,057,708‡ | 7,306,000 | 7,678,500 | 7,810,000 | 8,667,500 | 10,712,500 |
| Land under | | | | | | | |
| tillagea | 4,612,543 | 2,758,852 | 2,452,479 | 2,369,079 | 2,329,629 | 2,304,159 | 2,371,134 |
| Gross value of | | | | | | | |
| property and | Income tax | | | | | | |
| profits re- | not levied | | | | | | |
| viewed for | in Ireland | | | | | | |
| incometax £ | till 1853. | 31,352,374§ | 34,039,010 | 38,098,479 | 38,979,277 | 39,737,022 | 40,191,827 |
| Jt. Stk. Bank | | | | | | | |
| deposits, &c. | £2,263,000 | 33,700,000 | 41,568,000 | 55,984,000 | 58,306,000 | 60,509,000 | 62,426,000 |
| P.O. Savings | (1863) | | | | | | |
| Bank due to | 145,934 | 3,974,968 | 8,436,275 | 10,575,914 | 10,836,460 | 11,414,076 | 11,929,922 |
| depositors.. | capital). | | | | | | |
| Gross receipts | | | | | | | |
| from railway | | | | | | | |
| traffic£ | (1854) | | | | | | |
| Number of | 874,477 | 3,159,207 | 3,702,110 | 4,193,556 | 4,119,816 | 4,197,615 | 4,336,502 |
| emigrants | No complete | 59,623 | 39,613 | 39,082 | 23,295 | — | — |
| Number of | test'tics | | | | | | |
| paupers ..b | 206,468 | 103,604 | 101,090 | 103,913 | 103,429 | 102,066 | 99,002 |
| Total poor re- | | | | | | | |
| lief exp. c £ | 1,293,039 | 871,424 | 1,149,609 | 1,288,713 | 1,312,456 | 1,358,800 | 1,330,760 |
| No. of agricul- | | | | | | | |
| tural h'ndings | — | — | — | — | 601,765 | 603,827 | — |
| Rateable | | | | | | | |
| valuation d | — | 14,033,578 | 14,933,523 | 15,536,768 | 15,600,071 | 15,647,773 | 15,698,532 |
| Poor rate in | | | | | | | |
| counties and | | | | | | | |
| U.D.e | — | 2,173,082 | 2,060,194 | 2,037,341 | 2,057,529 | 2,137,828 | 2,278,141 |
| Mur. rates ..f | — | 602,939 | 822,808 | 1,081,155 | 1,103,341 | 1,143,694 | 1,174,272 |
| No. of insane | | | | | | | |
| under care | — | 16,688 | 21,630 | 23,718 | 23,931 | 24,144 | 24,390 |

a Total area 20,350,725 acres. b In receipt of relief at end of first week in January each year. c Including medical charities, &c., year ends Lady Day. d Excluding Government property. e County Cess and Union Poor Rate till after 1891. f Including Belfast water rate and Rutland Sq. tax, Dublin. † Figs. for 1849-50. ‡ Figs from 1889-90. § Figs. for 1891-2. * Owing to the rejection of the Budget these years, taken separately are misleading

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Arranged Alphabetically under Separate Classes.

(The Editor will be glad to receive corrections and suggestions for next year's issue.)

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FOR THE

PREVENTION of CRUELTY to ANIMALS

The work of this Society, which was founded in 1824, and has branches in most of the large towns of England and Wales, has a strong claim for the support of the charitable lovers of the animal creation. It is

SUPPORTED ONLY BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS,

and the Council need every assistance to enable them to continue their work—which is both educational and punitive.

WHAT THE SOCIETY DID LAST YEAR

- 6,556 offenders were prosecuted and convicted for cruelty to animals.
- 153 persons were acquitted, but the Society's costs were remitted, which justified the Society's action.
- 1,073 persons guilty of minor acts of cruelty were admonished in writing.
- 24,344 persons guilty of minor acts of cruelty were cautioned by Inspectors.
- 3,243 Sermons were preached on the subject of Mercy to Animals, by Clergymen of the Church of England.
- 299,133 Essays were written by school children on the subject of Kindness to Animals.

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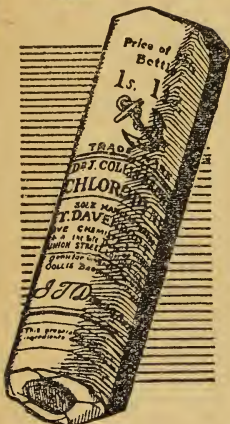
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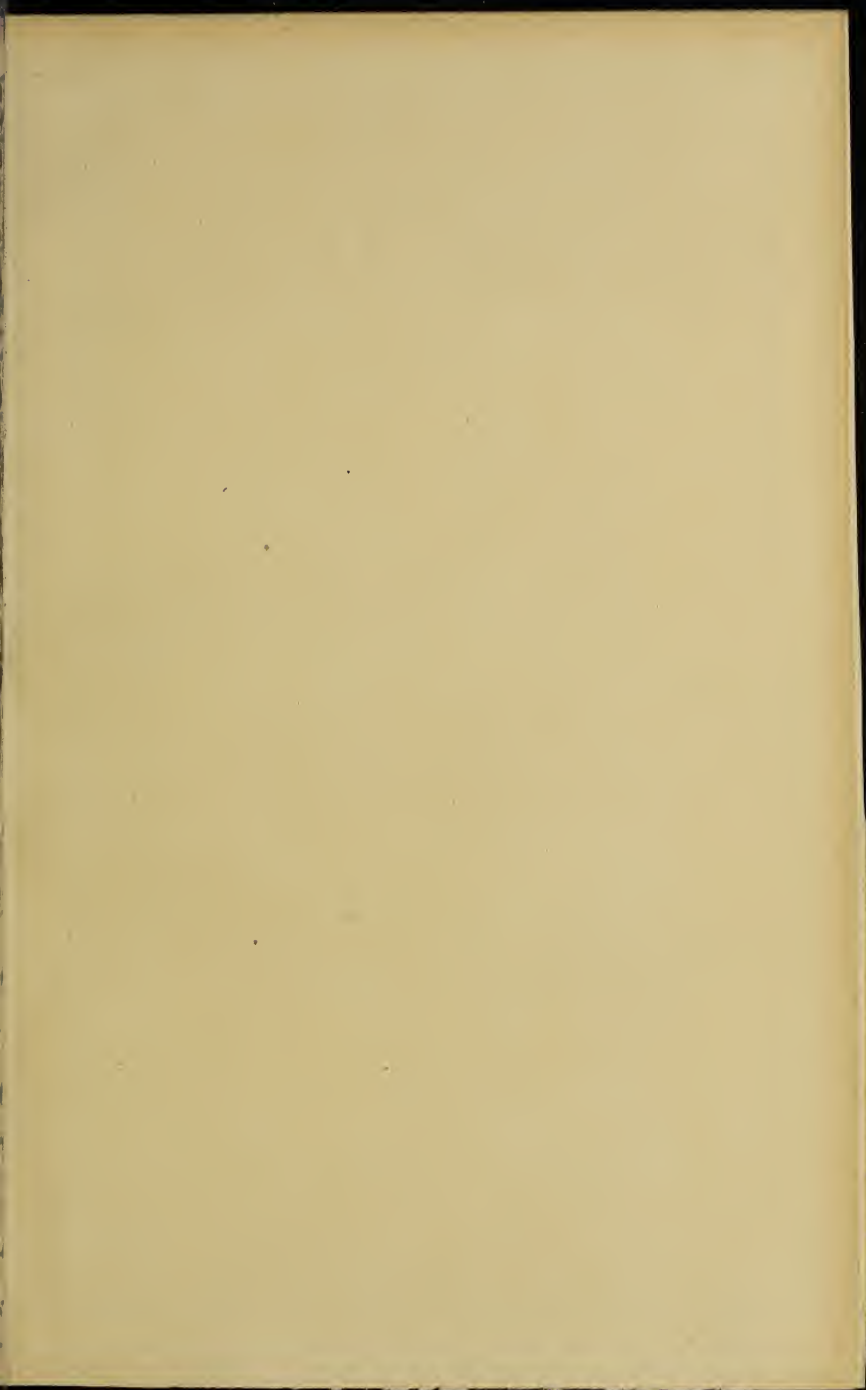
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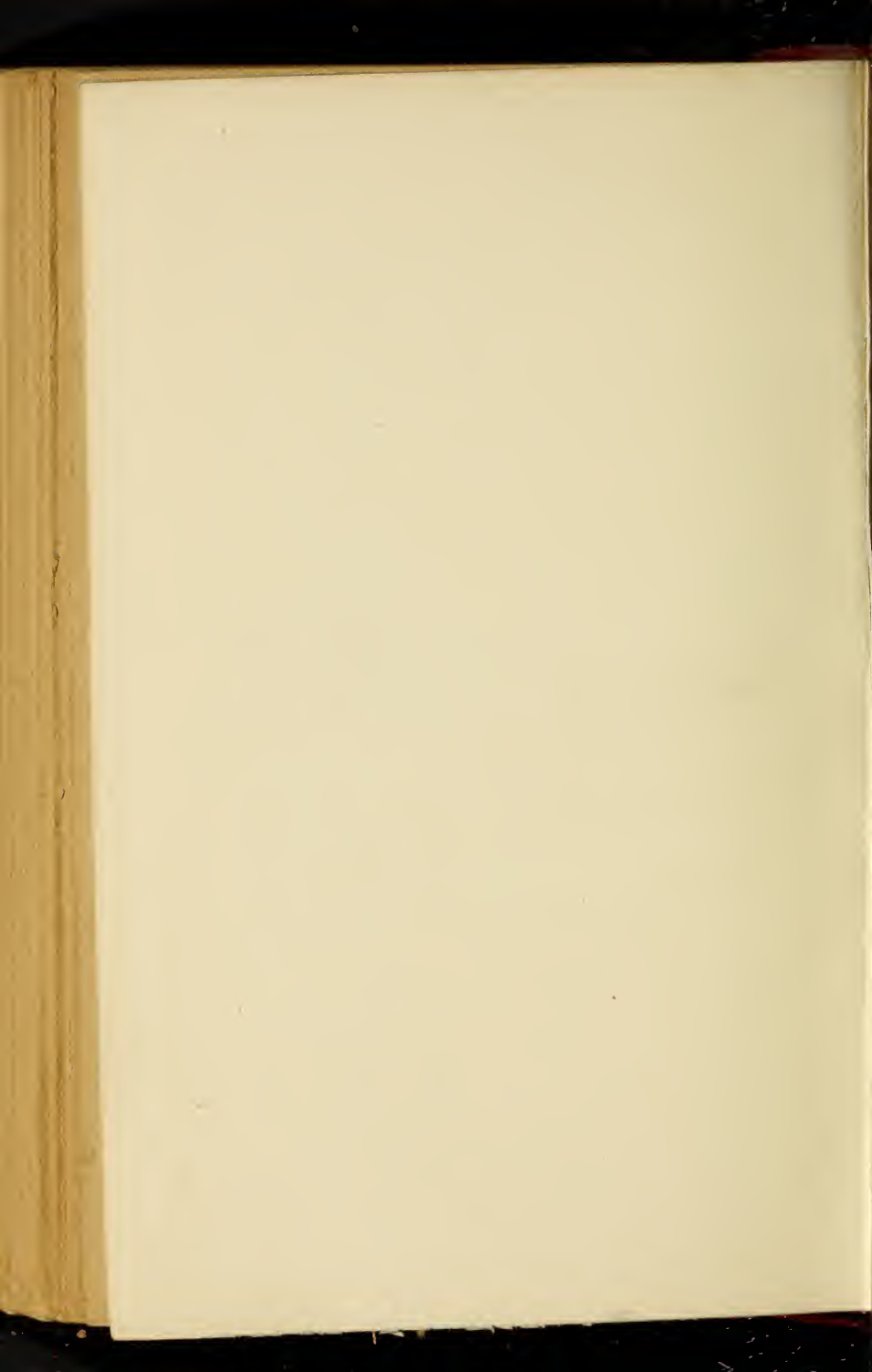
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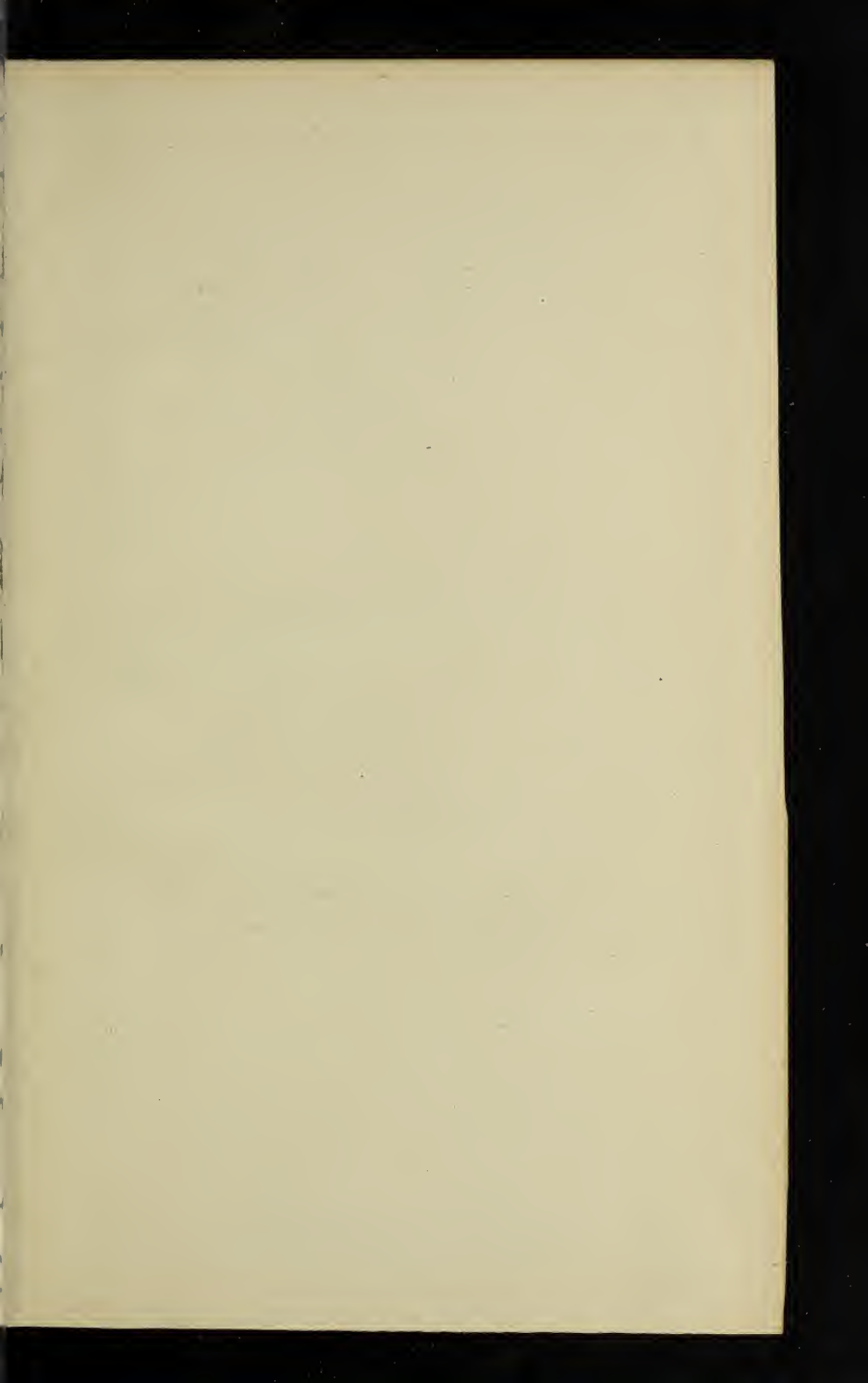
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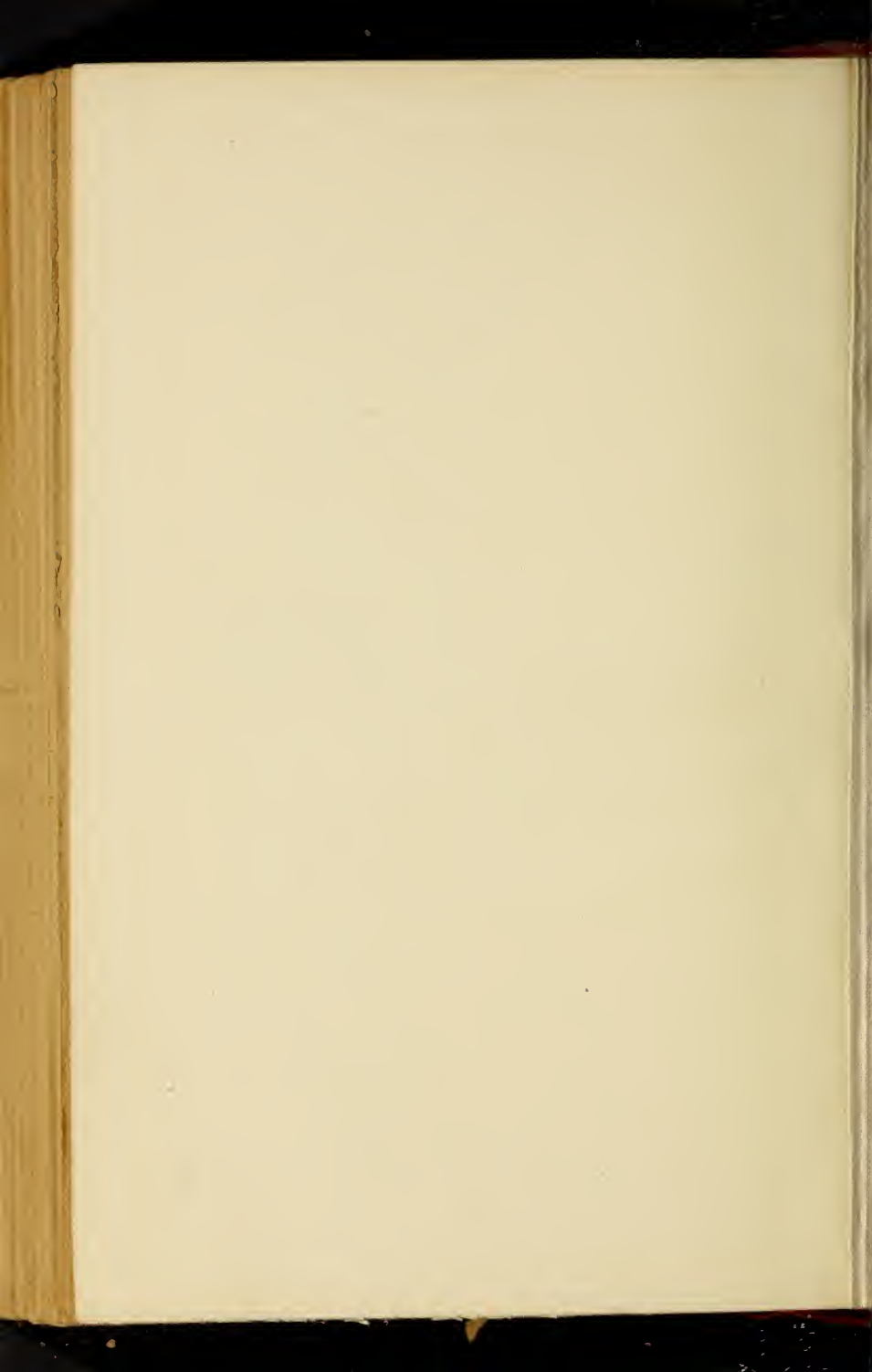
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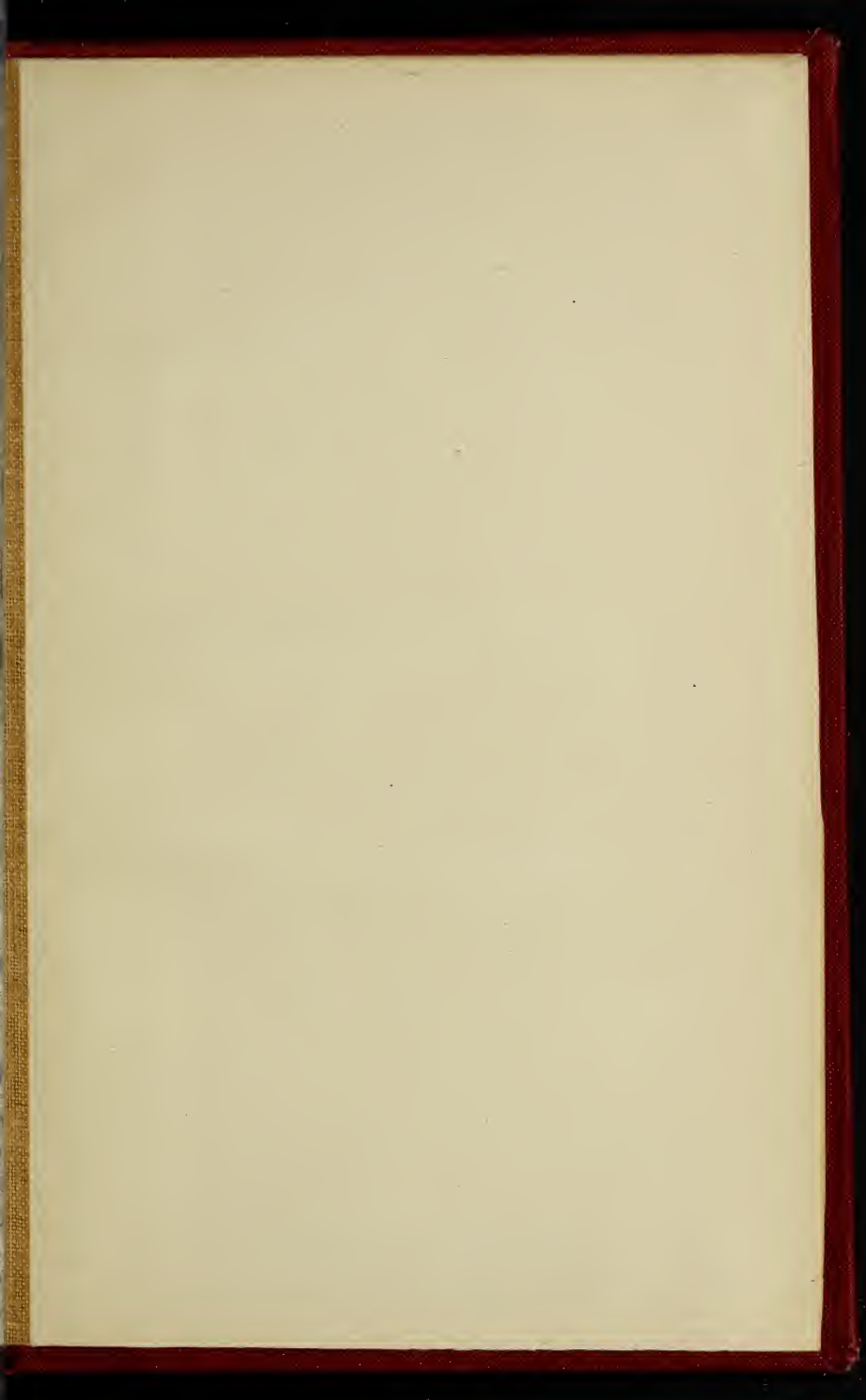
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